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CONTENTS

The World War and the Historians, by Prof. F. M. Anderson	-	-	-	327
Forms of History Recitation, by F. M. Morehouse	-	-	-	332
The Making of a Book—A Medieval Play, by Prof. E. B. White	-	-	-	338
A School Exhibit in History, by Dr. D. C. Knowlton	-	-	-	340
History an Essential in Catholic Education, by Rev. Bro. D. Edward	-	-	-	344
History in North Central High Schools, by L. V. Koos	-	-	-	347
Program of American Historical Association, Cincinnati Meeting	-	-	-	352
Reports from the Historical Field	-	-	-	353
List of History Teachers' Associations	-	-	-	354
Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb	-	-	-	355
Periodical Literature, edited by Dr. G. B. Richards	-	-	-	356
Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W. J. Chase	-	-	-	357
Index to Volume VII	-	-	-	359

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The World War and the Historians

BY FRANK MALOY ANDERSON, PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.

During the early days of the war many different names were used to designate the conflict. Among those most frequently employed were the War of 1914, the European War, the War of the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente. Of late the World War and the Great War seem to be the favorite terms. Both expressions, in significant contrast with those of earlier date, reflect a belief which appears to be nearly universal, that the present war is of vastly more consequence than any of which the present generation has any direct knowledge. To many it seems the most important war of modern history.

This belief in the transcendent importance of the war is plainly due in considerable part to the gigantic scale of the conflict. The tremendous armies, the appalling loss of life, the prodigal expenditure of money have profoundly impressed the imagination of all men, even those most remote from the scene of the struggle. It is, however, safe to affirm that the popular belief in the significance of the war springs chiefly from other considerations which it would take much time to set forth, were I to attempt the task. It will suffice for the purpose of this paper to note that the considerations in question have produced an almost universal conviction that the war has wrought a profound change in the hitherto accepted ideas on almost every important matter of human interest. In many things the change of ideas amounts to revolution, and even where the change is least, it is extensive. From every quarter comes the report that with the coming of the war the old order of ideas passed away.

If the observations just made are sound, it will be readily agreed in any gathering of teachers of history, that it behooves us to raise and seriously consider the question: In what way and in what degree has the branch of learning to which we are devoted shared in this great general change?

At the very threshold of the inquiry two difficulties are encountered to which some allusion must be made, in order that there may be no misunderstanding about the character of the views about to be presented.

For the sake of brevity I have alluded to this change of ideas as if it were a completed process. It is in fact barely begun. Many years must elapse before the full character of the change can be accurately measured. The other difficulty lies in the fact that, outside of matter relating to the war, the output of historical scholars since the war began has been so small and has consisted so largely of things practically completed prior to the war, that there is no thoroughly

satisfactory basis for a test of one's theories. What I propose to offer you, then, is not an analysis of the effect of the war as shown in the writings of the historians, but an expression of my personal opinion as to what is most likely to be the character of the change now in progress.

At this point I should not be in the least surprised if someone should exclaim in fine scorn: "An historian turned prophet." Having often repeated as my personal profession of faith Samuel Rawson Gardiner's dictum that prophecy is no part of the business of the historian ("History of England, 1602-1642," I, pp. V-VIII), I would, nevertheless, be entitled to follow the example of the courts when it becomes imperative to set aside their own earlier decisions. I could avoid reversing by distinguishing. But the process would take time. I prefer to assume that it is permissible and may be worth while to undertake the very hazardous task of trying to indicate the character which history writing and teaching, as a consequence of the war, are likely to exhibit for some years to come.

First of all, it seems to me that out of the war must come a great searching of mind and of heart among historians as to their conception of history and of its methods.

Although long predicted, it is, I think, very clear that the war came as a great surprise to most men. Even the best informed were taken unawares. But any examination of the causes of the war shows that it had its roots deep in the past and was the natural, if not inevitable, outcome of events which had received much attention from historians. Why then was the world so much surprised when the war came? A considerable part of the answer, I think, may be found in the fact that historians dealing with the events which we now see led up to the war did not handle them in a way to bring out their significance. This is very manifest for such comparatively recent events as the creation of the Triple Alliance by Bismarck in the early eighties, the formation of the Dual Alliance between Russia and France ten years later, the transformation of the Dual Alliance into the Triple Entente in 1904-1907, the Morocco crisis of 1905-6 and of 1911, the Turkish Revolution of 1908, and the Balkan wars. It is equally true of the Congress of Berlin in 1878, the Franco-Prussian war, the Congress of Vienna, and numerous other events, many of which were still more remote. That the historians failed to bring out the real significance of these events is due, I think, to their conception of history.

A discussion of the conception of history prevailing among historians would carry us far afield. For my present purpose it will suffice to state my belief that there has not existed that clear-cut, definite conception which was to be desired, and that to this defect is chargeable, in large measure, the failure of the historians to relate the history of the events, which we now perceive to have been the causes of the war, in such a manner as to let men see on what precarious foundations the peace of the world rested.

From a perception of this defect must come a new conception of history. The conception which it seems to me must come is not an hitherto unheard of idea. It is new in the sense that while many historians would have been ready enough to subscribe to it as a principle, very few acted upon it in practice. The new conception is that history is an explanation of the present by a study of the past. There was surprise when the war came because men did not understand the world in which they lived. That they failed to understand it was due in very large degree to the failure of the historians to make their work explain the real character of certain features of the existing social order which were dangerous to the maintenance of peace. A world war, though often discussed, was regarded as an impossibility.

The method most in vogue among historians of the present day, or at any rate the one which they profess to follow, is usually called the scientific method. Omitting as impossible in my time limit, and as probably unnecessary in this company, any description of the scientific method, it will suffice for the purpose of the present occasion to point out that the use of the term scientific method carries with it two implications: first, that it is possible for the historian to undertake his investigations in a spirit as free from bias as is possible for the chemist or mathematician; secondly, that working in this spirit it is possible to obtain a body of results approximating in validity those reached by mathematical or chemical research. Now if the method really possesses the virtues claimed for it and if the historians have been really practicing it, might it not have been reasonably expected that the historians in discussing the causes, progress, and problems growing out of the war would have exhibited a large measure of freedom from the passions which naturally enough have laid hold upon the masses in the belligerent countries? Without demanding from the historians any superhuman exemption from the frailties of mankind and making large allowance for the strong emotional appeal of the conflict, it would seem reasonable to hold that if the scientific method was really working according to theory the historians ought to have shown themselves relatively free from the grosser forms of national bias, particularly from those which manifest themselves in distortion of evidence, suppression of unwelcome facts, and lavish ascription of sinister motives to antagonists. That the historians did not show any marked superiority in these matters is well known. A capital illustration of this shortcoming on their part

is afforded in the "Appeal to the Civilized World," issued shortly after the beginning of the war by ninety-three distinguished German scholars, including such eminent historians as Harnack, Lamprecht, Max Lenz, Eduard Meyer, and Wilamowitz. That appeal contains these remarkable assertions:

"*It is not true that we (the Germans) trespassed in neutral Belgium. It has been proved that France and England had resolved on such a trespass, and it has likewise been proved that Belgium had agreed to their doing so.*"

I need not take time to point out the manifold absurdities in these statements. For the assertion that Germany did not trespass in Belgium some allowance may be possible on the supposition that perhaps trespass means something different to Germans from what it means to other men. For the assertion that it had been proved that France and England had resolved to trespass in Belgium, it may be possible to offer some explanation in human nature, though not in scientific method, on the supposition that to the German mind just now it does not require very convincing evidence to establish that point. But what possible explanation can there be for the assertion that it has been proved that Belgium had agreed to the intended French and English trespass? The evidence subsequently published by the German government in support of that assertion does not in the least support the claim.

My own reading leads me to share in the prevailing impression in the United States that, in utilizing their historical knowledge and training for a satisfactory handling of the problems raised by the war, the historians of Germany have failed more grievously than have those of France and England. But on both sides and in neutral countries there has been such a conspicuous failure on the part of historians to show any considerable exemption from the passions of the hour that one may well conclude either that the historians have been claiming for history more than should be expected of it or that the methods actually employed by the historian fall far short of the perfection supposed to have been reached. Which alternative contains the truth of the matter?

My own belief is that historians have been claiming for history, pursued according to the scientific method, much more of finality than is warranted. In this matter the historians seem to me to have sinned along with the other social scientists, the economists, political scientists, and sociologists. All have claimed too much for the results of their own labors. While recognizing that a strong argument may be advanced in behalf of the view that the fault has been in defective application of the scientific method by historians rather than in the method itself, I am strongly of the opinion that too much has been claimed for the method.

If I am right and this view comes to be accepted, what change will come from a general recognition of the limitations of the scientific method? Will it be abandoned or modified? I believe that it will be

modified. The modification which seems to me to be especially needed lies along the line of a keener realization of the distinction between branches of knowledge dealing with the activities of human beings and those which deal with knowledge attained by experimentation or observation of constantly recurring and relatively unchanging phenomena. "History repeats itself" is an old saying which ought to read "History never repeats itself." For the very reason that history never does repeat, it can never be known with the same degree of certainty that often repeated phenomena can be known. This rather obvious but much neglected distinction is destined to receive a much greater recognition than hitherto, and from this recognition will come a very real modification of the scientific method in history.

I can perhaps put most clearly my idea of the modification in method which it seems to me must come by reminding you that the results which the historian seeks in his investigation and incorporates in his writings are virtually the answers to a series of questions which a keen and interested inquirer would naturally ask about the matter with which the historian is dealing. Some of the answers relate to things of such a sort that certainty equal to that of experimental knowledge is attainable. The statement that the Archduke Francis Ferdinand was assassinated at Serajevo on June 28, 1914, is just as certain and as susceptible of convincing proof as any statement of fact regarding heat, light, or sound. But no statement in regard to the identity of the persons who planned the murder can at the present time have the same degree of certainty. On that subject the most that is now possible is a statement having a fair degree of probability. There are two reasons why this is so. In the first place the evidence is incomplete, and in the second place in the handling of it the historian is almost certain to be influenced in some measure by his knowledge of matters with which the problem is connected and by his sympathies regarding these matters.

When a reply is attempted to the question, What did those who planned the murder expect would be the result of it?, it is altogether likely that only a still smaller degree of certainty can be attained, for again the evidence which may some day be available is incomplete and the matter about which the question is asked is of a sort which is often never fully recorded in any evidence that can come within the ken of the historian. Much of what he would have to ascertain in order to give a positive answer may remain locked up in the minds of the men who planned the deed and may die with them. Assuming that an historian in investigating the three questions, when, by whom, and why was the murder committed, should exercise due diligence to get all of the evidence accessible and should handle it with the utmost possible fairness, the answers to the three questions would necessarily exhibit widely different degrees of certainty.

The examples cited relate to a recent occurrence,

but others might be selected almost anywhere in the field of history. I have chosen the murder of the Austrian Crown Prince because it seemed to me to illustrate very convincingly the point I am seeking to make, that the answers which the historian furnishes are of great divergency as to sureness. It should be a constant object of endeavor with him to let his reader see as exactly as possible how much certainty attaches to each answer, or in other terms to each fact, that he furnishes. It seems to me that hitherto this has not been done to anything like the degree possible. I believe that the war will do much to bring about the needed change. Critical examination of what historians have written about the war and its causes can scarcely fail to point to the imperative need of a greater effort being made to inform the readers of history about the precise degree of certainty belonging to the conclusions of the historians.

As already indicated, it is my belief that the war must lead to alterations in historical method which will produce new interpretations in almost every field of history. It is likely that the change will come first and will perhaps be most conspicuously manifested in the portion of history most directly connected with the outbreak of the war. I wish, therefore, to invite your attention to a consideration of the effect of the war upon the interpretation of European history in the nineteenth century.

In protest against a probably too common tendency to divide history into sharply defined divisions and sub-divisions, it is often said that there are no periods in history. Something of the same idea is expressed in likening the transition from one period of history to another to the change of seasons—a gradual process whose beginning and end can scarcely be discerned. While recognizing that there is much truth in both of these ideas, it is important, particularly for teachers, also to recognize that the characteristics of history in one era are often so different from those of the preceding and following eras that the separation into periods is not purely arbitrary nor merely for the sake of convenience. Division into centuries is frequently convenient, instructive, and in harmony with the facts of history, provided it is recognized that the centuries of the historian need not correspond with those of the calendar. With the historian a century may be somewhat more or less than a hundred years. It may begin after or before the calendar century.

The nineteenth century begins with the overthrow of Napoleon and the reorganization of Europe by the Congress of Vienna in 1814-1815. It happens to extend over substantially just a hundred years. Before the war began there was room for much difference of opinion whether the nineteenth century, historically speaking, had already closed or was still continuing. The war, I think, removes all doubt about the matter and makes the nineteenth century end with the World War. If a question is raised whether the end came with the beginning of the war or will come with the close of it, the answer cannot now be given.

That depends upon the twentieth century. When some years of the new century have elapsed and it is possible to know a good deal of what the new century is to be like, it may be possible to say whether the nineteenth century ended with the opening or with the close of the war. Meanwhile there need be no doubt that the war marks its close.

The war has served not only to define the extent of the nineteenth century, but also to throw into sharper relief its most characteristic features. What were its salient characteristics? The list as I should now make it up includes five items:

1. Nationality.
2. Democracy.
3. Inventions and discoveries.
4. Popular education.
5. Europeanization of the world.

It is not easy to construct nor to find a satisfactory definition of nationality. Nor is such a definition needed for the purpose of this discussion. We all know that there exists in the modern world something which in the form we know it had no existence in ancient or medieval times. It is an outgrowth of the nation-state and we call it the spirit of nationality. The nineteenth century witnessed a prodigious growth of this spirit, and many of the most significant events of the century came as a result of its manifestation. Wherever it existed at the beginning of the century it became stronger than ever before. During the century it sprang into existence and wrought profound changes in many places where at the beginning it scarcely existed. It is not only the principle for which, if need be, nearly all men are ready to lay down their lives, but it is also the force which to a much greater extent than any other moulds and shapes the lives of men.

Like nationality, democracy is not easily defined, but a definition of it is not just now necessary. Although there is much room for difference of opinion as to what constitutes real democracy there can be no doubt that during the nineteenth century the world moved rapidly along the road toward democracy. In 1815 absolute monarchs ruled everywhere save in some of the smaller states of Europe and in the United States, England, and France. Even in these countries effective political power lay in the hands of a very few persons. By 1914 absolute monarchy such as it was in 1814 had virtually disappeared from the entire world. It is only too true that in some of the most important countries of the world, notably Germany and Russia, absolutist ideas of government are still powerful. There can be no doubt, I think, that the war is due in very large measure to that fact, but even where democracy has made least progress or is least effective in actual operation, democracy is a potent force with which absolutism must reckon.

The wonderful progress made during the nineteenth century in the way of inventions and discoveries is so familiar that we are in constant danger of failing to grasp the significance of them. Familiarity is likely to breed lack of insight. The most significant thing

about these inventions and discoveries is not the large number of amazing achievements belonging to the century, but the way in which these triumphs of the mind have transformed the lives of men. In a very real and true sense the men of to-day are of a wholly different order from those of 1815.

In a gathering of teachers it seems scarcely necessary to emphasize the important changes wrought by the spread of popular education, but again our very familiarity with the thing is likely to blind us to its significance. As a factor in making the world different from what it had been in preceding centuries, popular education was not less potent than nationality, democracy, or inventions and discoveries. It is not too much to say that it was the force behind all three of these factors.

In 1815 large sections of the world's surface were entirely unknown to Europeans. The United States was the only land, outside of Europe, inhabited by men of European descent which had become an independent state and its contact with Europe, in comparison with that of later date, was slight. Europe had numerous colonies in most of which Europeans exercised some control over enormously superior numbers of natives, but the extent to which this European influence affected the lives of the natives was small. Since then nearly all of Africa, a large part of Asia and Australasia have come under the direct political control of European states. China and Japan have abandoned their policy of isolation and have been Europeanized in large measure. In the European colonies the lives of the natives have come to be so much influenced by the life of Europe that many colonies have been affected by the war almost as directly as Europe has been. The independent or practically independent countries inhabited by men of European descent, such as the British self-governing colonies, have increased in numbers and extent and have undergone the same transformation which the century has witnessed in Europe itself. Through immigration from and closer contact with Europe they have approximated the European type of society. During the century the world has indeed become Europeanized.

The list of salient characteristics of the nineteenth century just gone over differs somewhat from the one I would have given before the war began. I would then have included the development in constantly increasing force throughout the century of two powerful sentiments, humanitarianism and peace. At the close of the century they were apparently so widely diffused and were so much more potent than in any preceding century that they might fairly be reckoned as new social forces.

What shall we now think of these sentiments? Were appearances deceptive? Do the sickening carnage daily going on, the wanton slaughter of civilians in Belgium, the sinking of the Lusitania and hundreds of other merchant ships, carrying down with them thousands of helpless sailors and passengers, the pitiless extermination of nearly half the Armenian race

prove that the sentiment of humanitarianism was not a reality? Did the failure of the efforts put forth by the advocates of peace in July, 1914, and the zeal with which the same men have since supported the war measures of their respective governments, show that the sentiment for peace was a hollow sham? Or were both sentiments real and powerful and did they fail to produce the results expected of them only because though strong they were overwhelmed by the still stronger forces of destruction brought forth by the unprecedented character of the war? For such questions it is very certain that at present no satisfactory answer can be given. In the future, historians will doubtless be able to throw much light upon them, but it is safe to believe that no conclusive answer can ever be given. Therein lies the limitation and the fascination of history.

The amount of consideration which in a paper of this sort it is possible to give to the salient features of the century does not disclose as striking a change as would perhaps be expected. Decided change is more likely to be shown in the interpretation put upon episodes and special features, particularly those which have a manifest connection with the outbreak of the war. In the operation of the forces making for nationality, popular education, and the Europeanization of the world many examples may be found of matters which it may be confidently expected will undergo some change of interpretation. The unification of Germany affords a capital example.

German unity was won by blood and iron under the adroit leadership of a man who hated democracy and who cared more for Prussia than for German nationality. Under the spell of Bismarck's striking success nearly all interpretations of the history of the unification of Germany have come to bear two common characteristics. (1) It is assumed that the method actually employed—blood and iron—was, as Bismarck claimed, the only one by which unity could have been obtained. The Liberals who in 1848 sought to reach unity by the way of democracy are treated as wholly impracticable dreamers, doomed to fail, owing to the inherent weakness of their method. (2) Extremely lenient judgments are passed upon the brutal and unscrupulous measures to which Bismarck frequently resorted. Even though rather severe language is used occasionally with reference to some particular transaction, as in the case of the falsification of the Ems dispatch, the general verdict in regard to Bismarck is notably laudatory.

To me it seems very clear that the peculiar state of mind prevailing among the German people during the generation preceding the outbreak of the war was the direct and natural outcome of the method by which German unity was attained and of the teaching of Bismarck. If, as I believe, this state of mind—Bismarckism it may be called—was one of the chief causes of the war, is it not now to be expected that interpretations which treat Bismarck's methods as alone practicable and as unquestionably warranted will soon undergo revision?

Germany and the world are to-day paying the penalty for the method by which German unity was brought about. Other instances of severe even though much belated punishment meted out to nations which pursue or acquiesce in short-sighted, selfish, or immoral policies might be drawn from the history of the century. England and its pro-Turkish policy of former years is a striking case in point, for it is very clear that the lineage of the dispute between Austria-Hungary and Serbia, which furnished the immediate occasion for the war, may be traced directly back to the Congress of Berlin and the unfortunate policy then insisted on by Great Britain.

These examples which the war enables us to perceive clearly enough may even enable American historians to detect some instances of the same sort in our own national history. We may come to recognize that the deep distrust of the United States among Latin-Americans, which accounts in large measure for our difficulties in the handling of the Mexican problem, is largely due to a lively recollection of American aggression at the time of the Mexican war and of a recent occasion when we "took Panama."

One part of the altered interpretation of history which it seems to me must come as a result of the war is a change of emphasis. Despite the broadening in the scope of history which has been so conspicuous a feature of the historical writing of recent years, it is still true that historians concentrate their attention chiefly upon striking events and exceptional personages. Social conditions and the ideas which have determined the course followed by the masses, even when somewhat described, have not been dealt with in a way to show their part in determining the course of history. As certain social conditions and the acceptance of certain ideas by great masses of men did much to bring on the war, it seems to me that the war cannot fail to impress upon historians the need for greater attention to the history of social conditions and of potent popular ideas.

It goes almost without saying that the war can scarcely fail to bring about a renewed interest in military history. Text books which barely mention important wars will be revised. It may very easily happen that a much-to-be-desired change in the method of treating military history will grow out of the war. So much fighting has been done which cannot be described in terms of separate battles that historians may thereby be led to deal with all military history as it should be—not in battles but in campaigns.

Throughout this discussion I have spoken almost exclusively of the writing of history. In so doing I have not been unmindful of the fact that most, if not all, of us are engaged much more in the teaching than in the writing of history. But teachers of history can make their teaching effective only if they go through with something of the same mental processes the writer of history undergoes.¹

¹ A paper read before the New England History Teachers' Association, May 6, 1916.

Forms of the History Recitation

BY FRANCES M. MOREHOUSE, ILLINOIS STATE NORMAL UNIVERSITY, NORMAL, ILL.

The daily history recitation is the means by which the mental reconstruction of past events, which is history-knowledge, is built up. If the recitation be well-planned, well-executed, and the pupils are normal children working under normal conditions, then inevitably there will grow from day to day in the mind of each pupil, an imaged pageant of human development, probably not very complete nor very correct when judged by absolute standards of historical scholarship, but complete and correct enough to serve these pupils as a basis for true ideas of human relationship, ideals and conduct. The daily recitation is the step by which this mental constructive process advances from point to point.

There are at least fourteen distinct types of recitations, each taking many forms and of many degrees of difficulty, but clearly traceable in all stages of history instruction from the primary school through the college and university. In the detailed discussion of these which follows, an effort has been made to arrange them as nearly as possible in the order of their probable use, those most appropriate to the lower grades being put first, even though, as in the case of the lecture method, their use may extend to the graduate seminar.

If the development of the pupil in knowledge and power be the greatest aim of teaching, then the kind of mental process which a lesson requires and stimulates in pupils, gives a sound basis for classifying recitations.¹ Using such a basis, class exercises in history seem to fall into three general divisions, according to whether the students are acquiring knowledge, expressing it, or engaged in the active process of passing from the recall and expression of that already acquired to the gaining of new knowledge. This gives what may be called:

I. The Impression Group, in which the students' attitude is one of receptivity, and in which he acquires new material for his mental reconstruction of past events.

II. The Expression Group, in which the students' attitude is one of imparting knowledge; of producing in some way a representation of the conception he has of past events, movements, conditions.

III. The Development Group, in which the two processes noted are combined in the actual passing from old knowledge to new by means of reasoning, or in which pupils' knowledge is combined with new material to give a more complete and correct conception than existed before.

The three groups will be used alternately as need requires in effective history teaching. The first gives conceptions and images, arranges them systematically, correlates them with old knowledge; it may be called *par excellence* the instruction group.

The second makes proof of the clarity and thoroughness of the learning process; it is the testing group. The third is the active building process, which tests foundations by their use in supporting the new structure imposed upon them; it is the much-lauded rational method, which, however, is of much less practical use than is usually supposed. The first group includes the types of lessons which our American text-book method has caused to be greatly neglected in our schools, to the sad loss of thoroughly effective results.

The strictly history-learning group may be divided into five distinct types of lessons, as follows:

I. The Oral Instruction method, the first and the last method for the teaching of history. It is prehistoric, it has followed man down through every stage of his development, has tied together with the threads of tradition and injunction generation to generation, has awakened the minds of children and fired the heart of youth, encouraged man in his prime, entertained old age. The primary teacher begins her work by story-telling, which is using a simple form of the lecture; the great specialist in university halls cannot improve upon her method, and tells to his small group of privileged students the final conclusions of his most erudite investigations. It is the simplest and most obvious way of imparting the tale of the past—to tell the story by word of mouth. It taxes the farthest resources of the most skilled reciter; it is not always easy to do because it is so natural and so universal. It deserves careful consideration, especially as its application differs so materially with children and young people of different ages.

Two considerations make story-telling the universal, natural and effective method of beginning history instruction. These are the eagerness of children for tales, their insatiable appetite for them, and the fact that they have not yet mastered those tools of learning which will enable them, at a later period, to satisfy their own needs through their own efforts. A few general principles should govern the telling: the stories must be true (they must carefully be distinguished from fairy and folk tales), they must bear a tangible connection to some experience or interest of the children to whom they are told, and they must be made very concrete. Children relish a moral at the end of stories so generally as to lead to the suspicion that the ostentatious rejection of morals by their elders is a self-conscious measurement to some form of perverted education. However that may be, moral pointing is a useful if somewhat responsible vehicle for the development of sound prejudices, and its use with very young children, when intrusted to wise teachers, is one of the greatest means for education in morals that exists.

As children grow older, the history stories told them gain in continuity, detail, and definiteness. Every

¹ The word "recitation" is used here in its larger derived meaning of any form of regular class exercise.

story is part of a united whole, and has its own function to perform in the building up of such a conception of race development as shall help the student, when he has completed the course, to be a good citizen of the world, consciously a part of the human epic whose so-far-finished measures he has heard at least, although his appreciation may be limited.

The amount of lecture-work given in the high school varies with the quality of the preparation in the grades. The work in the seventh, eighth, ninth and tenth grades is the crucial test for final results, as a rule; for during these years the students are in the fact-learning pre-adolescent, and the beginning-to-think adolescent periods of their lives. Here strict discipline and the contagion of a healthy enthusiasm and thorough scholarship count for most. If the ability to study and the ability to reason are developed by skilful teachers at this point, little lecture work will be needed in the latter years of high school work; the trained mind of the student is then tinder which a tiny spark will ignite.² If, however, the preparation has been fragmentary and superficial, then the students are still mentally at the seventh-grade point; a Binet test on history-ability would show them several years below the stage they should have reached. This means that much which normally would be done by the students, independently, must be done by the teacher; that the high school teacher must undertake the training in thought-development and reasoning-development which should already have been gone through—and these processes involve much use of the lecture method, much development work and drill.

With college work a new cycle and standard of history knowledge sets in, and a new period of lecture work follows. With this we have directly nothing to do; but public school teachers, while not bending their energies primarily toward preparation for college work, should see to it that their pupils are prepared alike for citizenship and advanced study. There is no clash of method or of interest here; a student prepared to vote intelligently or to take his part in a municipal reform because he has studied the past progress of man from lower to higher civilizations, will also be prepared to study that progress more intensively in a college or university.

II. The Reading-Study Recitation. It is obvious that when the stories of what man has done are no longer to be told to the pupil, but that he is to use a new art he has mastered to gain this knowledge for himself, that his teacher should show him the very

best way of digging out that knowledge by means of reading. The children and grown people who do not know how to learn a history lesson from a book are legion; and most of them might do it very well if given careful directions when they begin, so that no bad habits are formed—habits which are later broken with great difficulty, habits which may cling obstinately to the pupil in spite of every effort to dislodge them.

The change from oral instruction and reproduction to text-book work is, then, a step fraught with momentous consequences. Let no teacher assign a lesson in the book, leave the novice to his own devices, and trust to a good providence to undo the results of his neglect. It is, first of all, important that the pupils themselves appreciate the dignity of their advancement from story-telling to story-reading; for all good teachers know that a task which comes as an honor is one which pupils delight to do as well as they can. On the first day of this new regime, let the teacher give a lesson in the use of the book. Let him first make clear the subject and the object of the whole lesson; let him show that reading the assignment is not an end, but a means to the acquiring of important and interesting new facts, which all well-educated people must know. Having established a motive for study, he goes on to show how first one element and then another are to be discovered in the magic pages of the text, which by means of the letters they have learned to read bring to them something they need to know and something fraught with interest and with the power to lead to further disclosures. Let each paragraph be read aloud by the teacher; let him show how new words may be found in the dictionary, how meanings may be made clear (if the text has been well chosen there will be few obscure passages), and, when the paragraph is finished, how its whole import may be penciled in a single sentence on the margin, or written in the form of a few catch-words on a piece of paper. This process of briefing and outlining should be begun with the text-book; to ferret out the gist of a paragraph is not a difficult thing if the text-book be suitable for children; and it is a necessary and an invaluable equipment for further work.

The first teaching of this art of extracting the central meaning of a paragraph will take several days; but whatever time it requires is time well spent, and time which will be repaid a thousand times during the pupils' later progress. Let there be a week or two given to it, the teacher working out the outlines on the board, and showing how the information in the paragraphs may be brought to mind by the catch-words or subject-sentences used. Of course, the converse process of infusing the content of the paragraph into the suggestive phrase will take place in the recitation which follows the reading process.

Having shown his pupils how to reduce the printed lesson to a series of topics, the teacher next shows them how to use these outlines with the text in learning the lesson. He shows them how to test themselves by finding out if they can recall the facts in the various paragraphs when they see or hear the topic

² In many schools the best teachers are placed in charge of the work in the last two years of the high school, those less experienced or able being allowed to start the students. No mistake could be greater. The very best instructors should be given the beginning work; students well trained during their freshman and sophomore years can hardly be spoiled by weak teachers later on, although results may be incommensurate with possibilities. The most desirable result of the movement toward a six-year high school to begin with the seventh grade, is that better-trained teachers are thus more likely to be employed for the instruction of children at this important time.

given; and after that, to find out if they can put the parts together to form the entire lesson, and if they can write and remember one sentence which will contain in a nutshell the facts in that lesson. Next, let the teacher paint a word-picture of the events of the lesson, to arouse an imaginative conception which will vivify this intellectual process into a subjective vicarious experience having emotional value; and after doing this for several lessons, let him by constant suggestion and by such devices as the study of pictures, dramatization, and the encouragement of lively narratives, keep alive and foster the imaginative element, which adds life and reality to the mental reconstruction of the past.

To teachers who have never begun the text work in this careful, painstaking, and often slow way, it may seem an impracticable thing. It is not. It is a method which simply utilizes a principle which has long been accepted as correct, but which is not often put into practice—that to begin a thing right is cheapest and best in the end. Most teachers spend uncounted hours in the course of a year in answering questions or correcting blunders, which might be saved by the systematic formation of right study habits in the pupils at the beginning. Two cautions are necessary:

1. Work with short lessons at first; do not attempt too much, but see that accuracy and strict following of directions are observed.

2. Keep the mental processes concrete and real by the use of maps and pictures; remember that the use of the printed page is an advance step of some distance, and that the picturing power developed during the story-telling age must not be lost.

When this careful introduction to text work has not been given at the proper juncture, it must be done at a pitiful cost of time and labor later on. The longer ineffective text study is allowed to continue, the greater time and effort are required to break bad habits and teach good ones. If students reach the high school—as they often do—without knowing how to learn a lesson from a text, how to analyze, synthetize and memorize, it is worth the time necessary to teach these processes then, or at least to give instruction in them. Sometimes it is too late for the gaining of any very good results, as habits of hazy thinking and lack of organization have been too firmly fixed to be changed.

Occasionally a lesson which presents unusual difficulties requires reading aloud by teacher and students, with discussion of the points which are obscure. Such occasions will be rare indeed, however, if the text is well chosen and the initial work of teaching children to study has been well done. The device of reading the lesson aloud in class when it has been ill prepared is one much employed by poor teachers, who do not know how, or who are unable to go to the root of the trouble.

III. The Object-Lesson. The third method of learning history is through the study of material remains through observation and explanation. There are many forms, including the visits to museums and

galleries, to memorial halls, homes of great men and women, battlefields, historic buildings, and public edifices of all kinds. The effectiveness of these expeditions depends largely upon the preparation made for them, and upon the way in which they are followed up by quiz and explanation. The preparation may consist of a study of the life of the person whose home is to be visited, or the events in a campaign, or the mode of life of some people whose material remains are to be studied; or of outlines of the processes which are to be observed in court house or post office or legislative hall. In every case each pupil should have at least one definite problem to work out, or one set of facts to explain clearly to the class following the visit. This specific motivation gives purpose and responsibility to what might otherwise be nothing more than a pleasure-trip. A pleasure-trip every such expedition should be, without question; but joy comes to live with any class in history which is adequately taught by a teacher with a vision of the meaning of his work.

IV. The Laboratory Lesson, as it is generally called, includes all those lessons in which pupils carry on activities having for their object the learning of facts, under supervision and by the creation of objective concrete expression of concepts. The making of maps, diagrams, tabulations, pictures and graphs, of models and restorations, or of any other kind of illustrative material, has a value too generally appreciated to need emphasis here. Such exercises are so rich in the means of growth, both in knowledge of history and in power of initiative and expression, that they should be generously provided for in planning course.³ A typical mode of procedure is to assign the problem to be worked out, and give sufficient directions for finding the material needed, the day before. On the day of the lesson the students gather with their material, the finding of which has been in itself a lesson. The instructor then explains as much as is absolutely necessary of the process involved, and sets his pupils to work. Some students will know what to do at once, others will think out a program if given a little time, while some will need considerable help. The instructor passes about among his pupils, making a suggestion here and a correction there, but encouraging initiative and originality as much as pos-

³ Much of the poor equipment of schools may be remedied by the pupils themselves. Maps, for instance, may be made by the pupils under skilled direction well enough for all practical purposes. The cost of heavy paper or drafting linen is not great; water-colors can be applied after the outlines have been drawn in pencil and verified, and boundaries traced in India ink. The name of the maker of such a map should be put upon the product, as the incentive of contributing to the school's permanent store is one that appeals to boys and girls. The author has seen high school seniors linger a long time before pictures and maps they had made in their sophomore years, and which were good enough to be kept and used for illustration by succeeding classes. These illustrations, well mounted on stout cards, were hung around the walls of a class-room in which younger students were then working. The remarks to the seniors as they examined their work showed that they were having an unconscious review of past study.

sible. The product may be mussy, inaccurate, and marred by many corrected mistakes, but if it may claim some originality and show some ability to think, the student has succeeded; while another study-period will enable him to put his production into shape for presentation to the teacher and final appraisal—perhaps to become a part of the permanent equipment of that school's history laboratory.

V. The Problem-Lesson is the highest type of purely knowledge-getting lesson. The fact or series of facts to be discovered is made clear in the assignment, and the materials to be used indicated. The students read, examine material, ask questions, and record their answers; then draw their conclusions and prepare to defend them if assailed. The usual self-drill is added, of course, to assure the ability to express what has been found to be true. This type of lesson ranges from the simple discovery of a series of facts found in the text, to elaborate inquiries involving research, comparison, reasoning, criticism. One of the commonest and truest criticisms of the average lesson assignment is that it is not problematic in nature; the students feel that a task has been assigned, rather than that they are asked to use their brains to find the answer to an interesting question.

The types of lessons so far considered are those which are chiefly concerned with the gaining of knowledge; but unless these are constantly combined with other types which have for their object the testing of the efficiency of the learning-processes, there is no assurance that the work has been well and permanently done. In the expression group there are:

I. The Reproduction of the Told Story. The retelling of the story that has been heard, the first kind of history recitation, is more persistent than appears at first glance, for even advanced high school and college students tell far more surely the story that has been told them than the one they read in a book. Since the story told usually makes a far more vivid impression than the story read, it is a help to sure reproduction to give at least the parts of the historical narrative which arouse curiosity, orally. This gives a starting-point from which the student may work toward a fuller narrative enriched by reading and observation.

II. The Reproduction of the Read Story. The commonest of all forms of history recitation in America is the verbal recitation from material read in the text. When learning a lesson from the text means a dazed treading of mazes of mere words, it is a pitifully deadening process, sure in time to kill whatever spontaneous interest in past human affairs the student may originally have had. But when the art of reading has really been mastered so that reading becomes the tool by which live images and movements are conjured in the imagination, when mind and heart have been trained to give the right response to the stimulus of the printed page, this recitation form becomes the dependable hand-maid of busy teachers, a means to delight and growth. There are countless ways in which such a recitation may be kept from monotony. No straining after variety is neces-

sary, however, for the content of history is its own antidote to monotony, and unfamiliar schemes of presentation must be used sparingly because they always mean an expenditure of energy in the keeping track of the means to the end. In emphasis upon the great worth of the content of the lesson, in its enrichment and clarification, rather than in clever schemes for entrapping the attention of children, lie the real secrets of effective teaching. Teachers should be familiar with all the varieties of lessons, of course, and be able to use each in its time and place; but with school conditions as they are, the text-learned recitation will predominate in most schools for years to come. Nor is this condition one to be deplored, for the proper use of good texts calls into exercise many of the most valuable powers the developing child possesses.

III. Reviews and Drills. Drill is introduced in some form into most lessons; but at intervals, which vary with the age of the pupils and the nature of the subject-matter concerned, lessons composed entirely of drill exercises should be given. Memorization is a large part of history learning in the early years; it is never entirely put aside. Memorization, the forming of a habit of mental recall, depends upon vivid initiation and frequent repetition until automatization ensues. The stimuli which induce the recall are the associations formed—words, mental pictures, related events, the remembered personal experience. With every repetition of the unit to be memorized, in association always with what may be called its recall key, the impression is deepened; the recall becomes more automatic, permanent, and sure. Therefore, good teachers use drill a great deal, giving variety to its forms, not so much for the sake of interest as for the sake of giving flexibility to the mind—of giving the ability to handle thoughts quickly and skilfully, to turn and invert expression. There are many ways of giving drill; a few good ones are:

1. The spelling-lesson form, in which the children line up in one or two rows, and either pass above and below each other as answers are correctly or wrongly given, or take seats until one side or the other wins. The teacher gives a rapid fire of questions which can be answered briefly and accurately. This is a good method to use in the grades, where a certain degree of friendly rivalry aids in maintaining a high standard of work.

2. The writing of answers to the drill-type of questions in sets of ten or twelve on paper or blackboard. Answers are read, mistakes explained when necessary, and repetition given where needed until facts that were not well learned have been thoroughly fixed in memory.

3. The rapid-fire oral quiz is similar to the spell-down method used in the lower grades, except that the element of competition is lessened by the omission of penalties for missing an answer.

4. The summary-quiz is a method used by some teachers who themselves possess a gift of rapid and skilful organization and statement. It is very effective, because it combines a test of quick recall

and accurate memorization with the placing of all facts in their proper relation to others. The teacher begins a summary of the general topic to be covered, but pauses when he reaches the name, date, or other element which he wishes the pupils to furnish. As soon as some one gives it correctly, he goes on with his summary; but if it be given wrong, he waits until some one thinks of the right response and supplies it. After a little practice such a review and quiz may be made very brisk, enjoyable and worth while.

5. Map-drills should always precede the study of new lands and periods. The permanent painted outline map, so necessary a part of the equipment of the history-room, comes into use at a second's notice for a quick pointing-exercise, for drawing in lines or locating places, for showing the geographic relation of events.

6. Tabulation offers a concise and accurate means of reviewing and fixing certain sets of facts. The chalk-lines on the board, or the hektographed lines on pieces of paper, should be prepared before the recitation begins, that no class time be lost in mere mechanical preparation. There are many ways, of course, of filling in the spaces; with younger children the exercise will usually become a game.

IV. Dramatization. The acting of historic events is a means of making them subjective, of learning the fact by a simulated personal experience. It is a mode of instruction which appeals to pupils of all ages, but in widely variant forms. Little children love to enact dramatic episodes with spontaneous invention of lines and "business"; grown-ups like to organize elaborate pageants. In the middle grades dramatization usually takes the form of simple plays which follow the events of the periods studied, although sometimes a divergence is made for an interesting anniversary in local history or national affairs. This gives several types of lessons connected with dramatization; the simple enactment of incidents without previous preparation, an entirely impromptu affair, which adds vividness and value to the primary teacher's story; the careful planning of a simple drama by pupils somewhat older, with the exercise of writing it, correcting it, and preparing it for presentation; the more elaborate preparations incident to the presentation of an historical play or pageant, which include a study of costume, sources which furnish detail for action, and the principles of dramatic presentation and play technique.

In all of these lessons the peculiar value of the dramatic presentation of history may be realized—the stimulus to imaging imposed by the necessity of reproducing the scenes of the play; the vividness, which gives to the events concerned an initial hold on memory; and the repetition involved in practice, which further fixes these events, in their proper sequence, in memory. There are incidental values of initiative developed and powers of expression increased, of course. It is a good way of utilizing the play-instinct of children. The method becomes less practicable for every-day use as children grow older,

and self-consciousness becomes greater; it should be used mainly in the lower grades, as the forms which appeal to older children, and especially to adolescents, are too elaborate for class-room use.

There are, in every expression-exercise, the two elements of stimulus and response. The teacher furnishes the stimulus, the pupil the response, and the ratio of response to stimulus is the measure of the pupil's mastery of the subject assigned. If the teacher asks detailed or leading questions, and receives disjointed, poverty-stricken replies, the pupil is plainly acquiring no very adequate picture of past events, nor is he placing such pictures as he does acquire in their proper relation to other scraps of knowledge he may have. In all of these recitations, however, the teacher decides the units for consideration, directs their arrangement, and guides their synthetizing into the final impression of the lesson. The pupil's attitude is responsive. He has learned facts, he has expressed them, he may even have used a high degree of judgment in comparing and evaluating them, and in arriving at conclusions. But he has not taken the initiative in organizing the whole lesson as a unit; his work has not been constructive in the highest possible degree.

Doctor Tryon⁴ has called attention to two types of recitation which do involve a greater degree of initiative than any so far noted, types which are therefore extremely valuable and which mark the ideal toward which history instruction should tend, because they do carry the pupil across the line which separates merely responsive thinking from that which is actively constructive.

V. The Individual Recitation is a helpful device for occasional use. One pupil is asked to recite a whole lesson, without suggestion of any kind from the teacher; he is to give outline, details, and summary. The recital may be considered a class exercise, or the other students may be set at some other work. The possibility of being called upon to organize and lecture upon the content of one whole day's work is a stimulating one; indeed, it is doubtful if pupils gain a conception of the lesson as a unit in many cases, without the urge of such a responsibility. It is the best antidote known for the fragmentary, passive learning of facts which passes with too many pupils for the learning of lessons. It goes an important step beyond the preparation for making right response to a stimulus furnished from without; it secures a positive, constructive organization of the lesson-unit and then its enrichment by associated details. Its use is not limited, as one might suppose, to upper grades and high schools; it may be used all along the line of history teaching.

VI. The Voluntary Contribution type of lesson gives splendid results where the teacher and pupils are capable of using it.⁵ A chairman and secretary

⁴ HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, VII, 239 (September, 1916).

⁵ Miss Lotta A. Clark, who was among the first to use this form of recitation in the Charlestown, Mass., High School, writes about it in the "School Review," XVII, 255.

are appointed or elected, who preside over and keep a record of the day's work, while the teacher is left free to grade the quality of the work and note the completeness of the subjective history-construction achieved by his students. The various parts of the lesson are considered "business of the day," and brought up voluntarily by the members of the class, who usually follow a brief outline of the topics in the lesson which they have prepared before class, in bringing up and discussing these elements. The chairman recognizes students who have risen to recite, and who indicate in this way a wish to carry on the lesson discussion. When a mistake is made the desire to correct it is made known in the same way; sometimes a number are on their feet at once, carrying on a lively discussion. The arrangement of topics is left to the students, but faulty arrangement is criticized in such a way as to lead to more logical sequence in the next exercise. Summarization at the end of the lesson is also in the hands of the pupils.

Teachers introducing this method find it best themselves to preside until some skill is attained by the class in recitation conduct upon their own responsibility; and some will find it best to continue to preside, as this leaves every student free to think of the lesson content. The characteristic thing in this lesson-type is that the teacher leaves the direction of expression to his pupils, who are therefore forced to project a sequence of topics and to build up by their own contributions the completed content of the lesson. It combines maximally individual initiative in thinking with social co-operation in construction, and so gives exercise in a very high type of training for good citizenship.

There remains to be considered the third group of lessons, in which the students pass from the expression of what they already know to the gaining of new knowledge through processes of inductive or deductive reasoning. The simplest form of deductive lesson is that in which the teacher furnishes an outline of the lesson content, which is filled in by the students in either an oral or a written exercise. This type of lesson is especially useful in schools in which pupils have not learned to brief and arrange topics, since it enables teachers to give training in this art while proceeding with the regular work. The outline is usually put upon the board, although it may be dictated as part of the assignment or developed by questioning the class; then details are furnished by pupils and relations developed by discussion.

In another form of deductive lesson, occasionally very useful in the upper grades and high school, the teacher states some general truth and calls for illustrations. This offers a good opportunity both for review of fact-knowledge and for the development of historical judgment, and may be made to serve also as a means for testing and encouraging that socialization of attitude which is the highest aim in teaching history. Deductive reasoning is called into play constantly as facts already learned are cited in the surmising of probable results of newly-studied move-

ments or events; or as general truths learned by observation are applied to historical situations.

In the inductive lesson the forming of generalizations is attempted. Perhaps the best form is the symposium lesson, in which special problems are assigned to different members of the class, who bring their discoveries and conclusions to the recitation, where they are presented and listed (usually on the board), and then used to form a generalization, which is recorded for future use.

Since the healthy reaction from the period of forced rationalism in teaching has set in, these last types of lessons have been less emphasized than formerly. We are coming to realize how large a part habit-formation, imitation, and the influence of ideals and prejudices take in the educative process. Used wisely and combined judicially with other methods, however, the reasoning-types have their own valuable place in the scheme of teaching methods.

Of course, no teacher will use any one method exclusively, nor often without an admixture of other methods. There are few learning-lessons which do not involve some review of points already established, and few expression-lessons in which questions asked teacher or classmate do not call forth information new to the questioner, thus adding to his history equipment. It is believed, however, that a clear idea of the distinct characteristics of the fourteen types of lessons, with their functions in achieving the final result desired, will add variety and effectiveness to instruction, and will stimulate inquiry as to the efficiency of methods now in use.

A DIAGRAM SHOWING THE FOURTEEN TYPES OF HISTORY LESSONS.

I. IMPRESSION GROUP.

- | | | |
|---------------------------|---|--------------------------|
| Pupil Passively Receptive | { | 1. Oral Instruction Type |
| | | 2. Reading Lesson |
| | | 3. Object Lesson |
| Pupil Actively Receptive | { | 4. Laboratory Lesson |
| | | 5. Problem Lesson |

II. EXPRESSION GROUP.

- | | | |
|--------------------|---|--------------------------------|
| Pupil Responsive | { | 1. Reproduction of Told Story |
| | | 2. Reproduction of Read Story |
| | | 3. Review and Drill Lesson |
| Pupil Constructive | { | 4. Dramatization |
| | | 5. Individual Recitation |
| | | 6. Voluntary Contribution Type |

III. DEVELOPMENT GROUP.

- | | | |
|-----------|---|---|
| Deductive | { | 1. Filling in Outline |
| | | 2. Illustrating given generalization |
| Inductive | { | 3. Symposium Lesson with generalization |

The Making of a Book—A Medieval Play

BY PROFESSOR ELIZABETH B. WHITE, PENNSYLVANIA COLLEGE FOR WOMEN, PITTSBURGH.

[The following study of medieval life was presented by the freshman class of Pennsylvania College for Women under the direction of Miss Elizabeth B. White, of the History Department. An effort was made to be historically accurate as possible.]

THE MAKING OF A BOOK.

Introduction. (Speaker not in costume.)

We are presenting to you to-day a sketch called "The Making of a Book." The scene is laid in the scriptorium, or writing room, of the Abbey of Tours in France, in the time of Charlemagne. Alcuin, of York, who came from England to help organize the palace schools for Charles, became abbot of this monastery in his later years, and continued to exercise great influence in religious and educational affairs.

The speeches are most of them direct quotations from the men of this time, and the words and music of the song were written as early as the eighth century. We have endeavored to suggest the costumes of the period, but must leave wholly to your imagination the low-ceiled room, panelled in dark wood. It is fitted with acomries, or shelved cupboards for the books, with tables, and with high-backed wooden benches of the simplest workmanship.

(Costumes. The Monks: Loose brown robes, belted, but without girdles, sandals. The Ladies: Barbara, simple white gown, belted at the hips with a gold band, deep red cloak edged with gold (really only a wide scarf or plaid), white covering on head, hair braided in two long braids on either shoulder. Gisela, similar costume, but dark plaid drawn over head, instead of white drapery.)

THE MAKING OF A BOOK.

THE ABBOT, ALCUIN.

OTHER MONKS.

FULRAD.

ANGILBERT.

THEODORE.

RABANUS.

BARBARA.

GISELA.

The Scriptorium, or writing-room, in the abbey at Tours. Enter the Abbot and Monks. (Hands uplifted.)

The Abbot (slowly). Vouchsafe, O Lord, to bless this work-room of thy servants, that all which they write herein may be comprehended by their intelligence and realized by their works.

(Turning to Fulrad.) Hast there, my brother Fulrad, a good sheep-skin on which our youngest brother may learn to write?

Fulrad. It is here, father. This is smooth and firm.

Abbot. Take thy place beside Brother Fulrad, my

son, that he may continue thy instruction. Apply thyself well, for what saith the wise Cassiodorus? "Man may fill his mind with the Scriptures while copying the sayings of the Lord; with his fingers he gives life to men and arms against the wiles of the devil. As the antiquarius copies the words of Christ, so many wounds does he inflict upon Satan. What he writes in his cell will be scattered far and wide. Man multiplies the words of Heaven, and the three fingers of his right hand are made to express the utterances of the Trinity."

(He seats himself and begins to study a roll.)

Fulrad. Hast thou a strong, smooth feather for thy pen?

Rabanus. Aye, the feather of a crane, and sharpened as thou didst teach me yester morn.

Fulrad. Now, that is well. What hast thou written there?

Rabanus. I have copied the instructions placed by our father Alcuin over the door of this room.

Fulrad. Read them.

Rabanus (reads). "Here let the scribes sit who copy out the words of the Divine Law, and likewise the hallowed sayings of the holy fathers. Let them beware of interspersing their own frivolities in the words they copy, nor let a trifler's hand make mistakes through haste. Let them earnestly seek out for themselves correctly-written books to transcribe, that the flying pen may speed along the right path. Let them distinguish the proper sense by semi-colons and by comas" (what is a semi-colon, brother?).

Fulrad. It is a dot, with a tail added, thus.

Rabanus (continuing). "And let them set the points each one in its due place, and let not him who reads the words to them either read falsely or pause suddenly. It is a noble work to write out holy books, nor shall the scribe fail of his due reward. Writing books is better than planting vines, for he who plants a vine serves his body, but he who writes a book serves his soul."

Fulrad. Excellently read. And thou wilt understand and remember? Books, and especially those of St. Augustine, are esteemed by us as more precious than gold. And, indeed, the copyist hath his reward. There was once a worldly and sinful brother, who notwithstanding his frivolities was a zealous scribe, and who had in industrious moments written out an enormous volume of religious instruction. When he died, the devil claimed his soul. The angels, however, brought before the throne of judgment the great book, and for each letter therein written, pardon was given for one sin, and behold, when the count was completed, there was one letter over. And it was a very big book. Therefore judgment was given that his soul should be permitted again to enter his body,

that he might go through a period of penance upon earth, but in the end be saved.

Theodore (who has been painting busily). And hast thou heard that in the monastery of Wedinghausen in Westphalia there was a scribe named Richard, a Saxon, who spent many years in adding to the library of that institution? Twenty years after his death, when the rest of his body had crumbled into dust, the right hand, with which this holy work had been accomplished, was found intact, and has since been preserved under the altar as a holy relic?

Rabanus. Wonderful!

Fulrad. Two hours each day must we write, at the very least, according to the Rule of the blessed St. Benedict. Sometimes we may talk, as to-day, or one reads for us to copy, but sometimes for our souls' good we work in silence, and then no man may speak, unless he would do penance after. Then, if thou desirest a book, extend thy hand, thus, making motions similar to those in turning the leaves. If it be a pagan work, however, scratch thine ear as a dog doth, for unbelievers be but as dogs. But come now, to thy letters. Thine a's are crooked, and thy k's stand not upright.

(They work.)

Enter *Angilbert*.

Abbot. Why, how now? A most hearty greeting, *Angilbert*. Art from the Emperor?

Angilbert. Fulk and I are the missi for this district. We bear the new capitularies, and a letter for thee besides. Fulk lodgeth in the town to-night, but I came straight to thee.

Abbot. And thou didst well. Shalt rest and sup, and then read us the new laws, that we may write them down and send them to the officials hereabout. Prepare new scrolls for this, my children. Have them ready. And what saith Charles to me? (Takes letter and opens it. He reads, "We hold our general assembly this year in the eastern part of Saxony, on the River Bode, at the place which is known as Strassfurt. Come so prepared with your men that you may be able to go thence well equipped in any direction, that is with arms and accoutrements, and provisions for war in the way of food and clothing. In your carts shall be implements of various kinds, axes, planes, augers, boards, spades, iron shovels, and other utensils necessary in an army. Bring supplies of food for three months.") That means the Saxons are out again. A pestiferous race! What peace hath a man for study in these days? (Shakes his head disconsolately.)

Theodore advances with his pages.

Abbot. What, *Theodore*, hast thou finished thy pages, then?

Theodore. They are illuminated as perfectly as I may. I have not spared gold nor color.

Abbot. Why, it is wondrous well done. It is a treasure, my son. Look, *Angilbert*. Come, now, we shall finish this book in a new way. In our monastery at York, we no longer roll these pages, but we fold them, thus, and make holes here, and here, and bind them together, and over all we place a cover of a coarser skin, to protect the leaves. S. Columba, in Iona, made them thus, and I have seen his great Book, called the Book of Kells, with a noble design stamped upon the cover.

Angilbert. Charles hath a new book, sent from Canterbury, that hath covers of boards, with skins over them, and so the pages lie smooth, and cannot roll or be wrinkled.

Abbot. Indeed, I like that well. We shall try it.

Rabanus. Pardon, father, but I have seen in the shop of Anselm, the smith, certain small pieces of metal, fashioned for hinges. Might we not fasten them to the two sides of the cover for clasps?

Abbot. Good, my son. This also will we try.

Rabanus. May I go and bring some?

Abbot. Aye, bring them here at once.

Enter *Barbara*.

Abbot. Greetings, daughter. What wouldest thou with us to-day?

Barbara. I bring jewels. They were my mother's. Fulk hath but now brought them to me, and I would make of them some fitting gift for the honor of the Holy Church, before they tempt mine eyes away from duty. What sayest thou? What may I do with them?

Re-enter *Rabanus* with the clasps.

Abbot. Why I think thou art come in the very nick of time. See, here, and here, upon these clasps, they may be set, to ornament this volume of the Scriptures that one brother hath but now completed. What better use for jewels than a place upon the Book of Books? Anselm can do it. He is skilled in metal work. Shall it be so?

Barbara. I am well pleased. Where are they, Gisela? Here, take them, father.

Abbot. Sing we now the evensong, and then to supper.

They sing.

Ae - ter - na Chris - ti mu - ner - a Et mar - ty - rum vie - to - ri - as
 Lau - des fe - ren - tes de - bit - as Lae - tis ca - na - mus men - ti - bus.

Making History Teaching Definite For The Public: A School Exhibit in History

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

THE PUBLIC AND THE SECONDARY CURRICULUM.

The general public is woefully ignorant of what the presentation of a subject in the secondary school really involves either as to content or method. They may have some knowledge of the former, but they are entirely in the dark as to the latter. A subject like mathematics may connote to them something fairly definite; we are still dealing with realities when we mention Latin, German or physics; but the moment we enter the realm of the cultural we are lost to view in a veritable mystery of mysteries.

The competition for recognition among the various secondary school subjects is so keen, the tendencies of the age are so utilitarian or materialistic that a definite campaign must be waged to justify the time and attention given to those subjects which have always been conceived as largely cultural in character. It behooves the earnest teacher of the social sciences, wherever and whenever the occasion arises to enlighten the public whom he serves on the tremendous changes which these subjects have undergone in the past quarter century, and to set forth clearly the aims sought in their presentation and the methods by which those aims are realized.

It is not so much a question of explaining the content of the course of study as of describing the methods pursued in the given subject. Did the public but realize the real value which might accrue to a boy or girl were he to pursue these subjects for from one to four years, they would lend the teacher that sympathy and co-operation so much needed to make the work most effective. The pressure upon principals and boards of education from the tax-paying public is so strong, and the age is so critical that each subject must somehow or other "make good," if it is to remain in the curriculum. The cry for efficiency is heard on every hand. It is doubtful whether any satisfactory efficiency test can be applied to the results of our history teaching. There are other ways, however, which may be just as effective for justifying the time and energy spent upon the social studies, and one of these is the evolution of a satisfactory method of performing the work in hand. The average parent has not kept pace with the great changes accompanying the presentation of the social sciences, and every opportunity should be welcomed which enables the administrative or teaching staff of the public school to inform him.

THE PLAN OF THE NEWARK SCHOOL EXHIBIT.

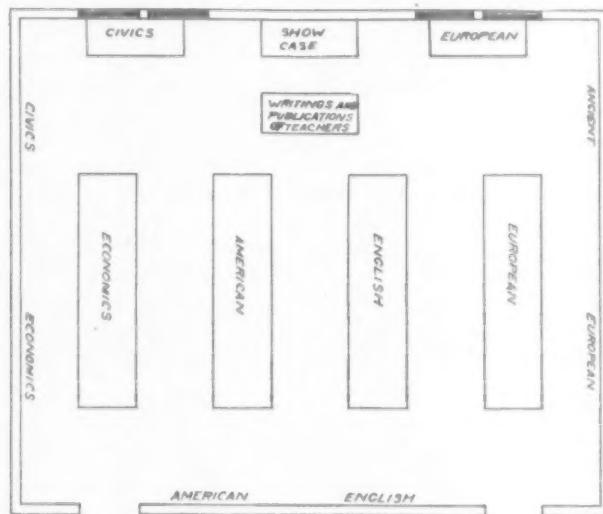
Such an opportunity presented itself in the city of Newark in connection with the celebration of the 250th anniversary of the founding of the city. One of the features of the celebration was an exhibit of the work of the public schools held in the South Side

High School from July 5 to August 5. Over fifty rooms in the building were given up to the various subjects represented in the Newark course of study, about a third of the space being devoted to the work of the high schools.

The authorities in charge of the undertaking were so thoroughly in sympathy with the idea already expressed of enlightening the public as to what the schools were actually trying to accomplish that they selected this as the primary object of the entire exhibit. Thus we presented to the entire teaching force a unique opportunity—that of making each subject intelligible to the public. This opportunity was especially welcomed by the teachers of the social sciences, and they sought in the secondary school exhibit particularly to make it not only definite in character, but self-explanatory.

GENERAL ARRANGEMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCE SECTION.

One room was assigned for the purpose—a classroom ordinarily seating forty students. The desks had been removed, and around the three available sides large screens were set up upon which to display the work. Mounts were supplied of a uniform color and size (22" by 28"), to be fastened to these. Four tables were arranged in the middle of the room and one under each set of windows. This left space on that side for a large show case. The following plan illustrates the general arrangement of the room and the amount of space devoted to each field of history:



Wall space was also assigned on either side of the corridor outside, thus affording an ample opportunity for displaying everything that was really vital to the work.

It was expected that the new high school manual describing the course of study in the high schools would be off the press, and that accompanying each exhibit—e.g., that in ancient history—there would be this printed information stating the ground covered and the text-books used. This hope was not realized. It is very doubtful whether the public would have taken the time to read such a summary had it been available. In the corridor just outside the door by which the visitor would naturally enter was a large placard stating the general object of the course in the social sciences. This read as follows:

The general aim of the course in the social sciences is to give the student a background for his own life and environment that he may better appreciate the character of the problems of life and devote himself more intelligently to their solution; that he may see more clearly the complicated character of human society, and, understanding the nature of the obstacles to be overcome, be more patient with the slow progress of reform; and finally that he may have that mental vision, clarified by a study of the past that will enable him to enjoy the rich life of the present, and to set himself manfully to the task of shaping the course of the future.

A large chart at the right showed in graphic form how much history was required in the six courses offered in the four high schools. Just below appeared a large placard with the following statement of the objects sought by the exhibit:

Note how the exhibit illustrates the following points:

1. The problem nature of the work.
2. The variety of the assignments.
3. The correlation of the work with the departments of art, English, sewing, manual training and mechanical drawing.
4. The points of contact maintained with the world to-day and the student's environment.
5. The realization of a definite aim in each course.
6. The use of illustrations.
7. The use of notebooks.
8. The nature and scope of outside reading.

On a similar placard was a directory of the whole exhibit, arranged in accordance with the following plan:

Object of the Course in the Social Sciences.
Method of Presentation.
Exhibit 1, Ancient.
Exhibit 2, European.
Exhibit 3, English.
Exhibit 4, American.
Exhibit 5, Economics.
Exhibit 6, Civics.

Tables: Text-books and books for supplementary reading; course of study syllabi; aids to study of subject; writings of members of the department; notebooks; examination papers; examples of class work.

Over each exhibit was stated in large letters the special object sought in the presentation of that particular field of history and the particular year or years in which the work was given. These more specific aims were closely related to the general object laid down for the entire group. As an illustration of these special aims, the object of the course in ancient history was stated as follows:

To give the pupil

1. An idea of the continuity of human progress.
2. A notion of the relation of cause and effect.
3. Some grasp of the life, culture and problems of the past with their relation to the present.
4. A realization of the enduring influence of great personalities.¹



The aim of the course in American history was stated as follows:

The general aim is to trace the progress and make clear the struggle for liberty.

1. For political liberty against the oppressive action of established government.
2. For religious liberty against the narrowing influence of an insistent theocracy.
3. For industrial liberty against the restrictive measures of established industry.
4. For a broader democracy against the aristocratic tendency of established society.
5. For a broader humanity against the entrenched power of wealth and privilege.

The aim of the course in economics was stated as follows:

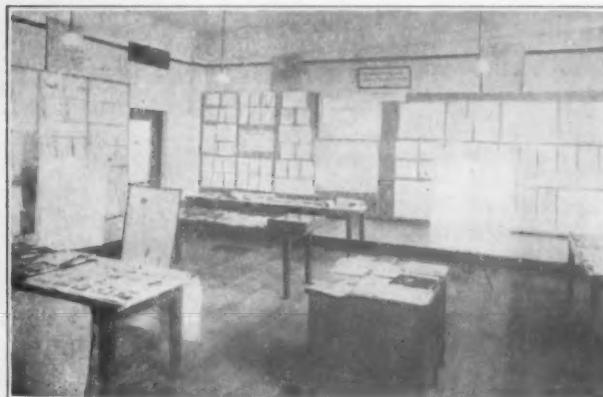
1. To make the students intelligent on present-day social and industrial problems and on their solution.
2. To develop in them an altruistic spirit.
3. To develop independent thinkers.

¹ In the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, Vol. III, p. 151, appears a statement of the aim in European history.

The aim of the course in community civics was stated as follows:

1. To give the students a workable knowledge of the way in which Newark provides for the public welfare.
2. The arouse an abiding interest in civic affairs.
3. To develop a sense of civic obligation and personal responsibility.
4. To cultivate a public opinion that demands efficient, honest service in public office, GOOD CITIZENSHIP.

It was the particular object of the exhibit to show the various devices by which these aims were realized. This was no easy task in a field which was naturally characterized by much indefiniteness, but much was done to translate into definite pieces of work the actual experiences of the class-room, and to enable the uninitiated to realize just what a course in history involved and just what the boys and girls were doing. All the text-books and helps used were available. In short, nothing was omitted that was in any way connected with the actual presentation of the subject in the class-room.



THE PROBLEM METHOD OF TEACHING.

The problem nature of the work and the varied forms taken by the assignments were illustrated in the European field by a set of answers to the questions, "How would you frame the Near Eastern Question?" "How would you solve the Balkan problem?" To each of the answers to the latter question was attached a criticism by a fellow student. Then again there were interviews with famous men in which the writers imagined themselves face to face with a Cromwell or an Erasmus, describing the man and voicing his views upon the questions of the day. There were answers to the query, "If I were Tzar;" letters supposed to have been sent home by delegates, attending the Council of Constance, in which they set forth the difficulties involved in the situation before them; reports of interviews with representatives of the different classes in Germany, expressing their views of Luther and the Reformation; and speeches delivered at the trial of Louis XVI. A complete set of assignments actually used for an entire term was

also displayed in typewritten form, making clear the constant insistence upon the problem nature of the work.

CORRELATION WITH OTHER SUBJECTS.

The attempt to correlate the work with that done in the department of English was illustrated by dramatizations—e.g., the sinking of the Maine, Columbus' first voyage, and the French Revolution; by reading lists and summaries of reading; and by elaborate essays, note-books and briefs, for debate. In every case the form followed was that prescribed by the department of English.

Beautifully colored maps, plans of monasteries and castles, and of basilicas, temples and churches, bore witness to the great indebtedness to the art departments of the various schools. The work of entire classes in fixing from memory boundaries, etc., on outline maps showed the success attending efforts of this sort and the practical nature of this work. Elaborate graphs of the tariff problem; of the rise and fall of the power of king, church, nobles and commons in England throughout the Middle Ages; carefully drawn diagrams illustrating the commission form of government, the organization of a great railroad, and the progress of the temperance movement, all bore witness to the skill of many a student in mechanical drawing. Many of the maps and plans thus prepared—some of which were absolutely original—were executed on a large enough scale to be utilized as a part of the regular equipment of the department.

One of the most attractive features of the exhibit from the standpoint of the visitor was a case of costume dolls dressed by students in the history classes who were also taking courses in sewing. The costumes were faithful reproductions of German plates. These were copied in water color by students in the history department who were enrolled in the art department, and it was therefore possible to appreciate the care taken to reproduce the exact color scheme of the originals. There were seven of these dolls representing a page, the wife of a German knight, a man of the people—a twelfth century type—women living in the cities during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and a Ku Klux rider mounted on his horse.

DRAWING UPON THE PUPILS' ENVIRONMENT.

The close relationship which was maintained with the student's life and environment was illustrated time and again, particularly in the use made of the magazine and newspaper. There were copies of such periodicals as the "Survey," the "Literary Digest," the "Independent," the "Outlook" and "Review of Reviews;" and the use made of the daily paper and the weekly or monthly periodical was illustrated in a variety of ways. Here, for example, in the economics exhibit were graphs of current prices; a map of the United States showing by years the passage of workmen's compensation laws; analyses of the party platforms of 1912 for economic clauses; reports of visits to factories; to penitentiaries; to court-rooms; and reports of strikes in the neighborhood, with their causes and other pertinent facts in tabular

form. "How would you decide the Oregon case?" illustrated the time and attention given to current happenings, and the sort of reaction upon the student resulting from the use of questions of this character. In the civics exhibit appeared the minutes of the "Newark Charter Revision Committee" (the junior class in civics in one of the high schools), accompanied by a diagram of the particular form of government which they finally recommended. Cartoons were displayed upon pages taken from note-books, accompanied in each case by an interpretation; other note-books with their carefully selected clippings from the local papers illustrated the emphasis placed upon a knowledge of local conditions. A series of large maps of the "Blood-red World" at various epochs: in 1648; during the Wars of Louis XIV; during the Napoleonic struggle; and as the result of the present great war, brought out clearly the effort to



correlate the past with the present, and to throw light upon the great events of our day. A map of Africa as it would probably be apportioned among the great powers in the event of a German victory also illustrated this same point. The use of the editorial and the news item to vitalize the work was also illustrated by specimens of work.²

Individual reading lists, types of tests, final examination papers, illustrated material drawn from books and magazines, large wall pictures and carefully prepared note-books served to make clear the other phases of the work to which attention was drawn in the large placard serving as a guide to the visitor.

TESTIMONY OF NEW JERSEY'S CHIEF EXECUTIVE.

To emphasize the value of such work as viewed by men of affairs—if further emphasis were needed after such a display—letters were on exhibition from the present Governor of New Jersey and from three of her ex-Governors. These letters follow:

² See articles on this point in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, VI, 185-187, 216-218.

STATE OF NEW JERSEY, EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT.

SEA GIRT, June 28, 1916.

I am very glad to endorse the work of the high schools of this State in connection with instruction in social sciences. I consider this a very important branch of education, and I feel our schools are taking the matter up intelligently and thoroughly. Sincerely yours,

JAMES F. FIELDER.

TRENTON, N. J., June 28, 1916.

I take great pleasure in commanding the work of your school in history, civics and economics. These are studies that bear upon the incidents of every-day life and a mastery of them enables the citizen to act intelligently for his country and wisely for himself.

The great educational problem of to-day is how to co-ordinate the school with the life work of the individual, and social science study is a step in that direction.

With best wishes, I am,

Very sincerely yours,

E. C. STOKES.

NEWARK, June 27, 1916.

You ask me for a word endorsing the study of the social sciences—history, economics and civics—by the boys and girls in the high schools.

I think it a little strange that you should ask my endorsement, for in the day in which we live I think the study of social science by our young people should be as much a matter of course as the study of spelling or arithmetic.

I am glad, however, to send you the word of approval you ask.

Yours very truly,

FRANKLIN MURPHY.

ESSEX BUILDING,
NEWARK, N. J., July 25, 1916.

In this day and age when so much is depending upon a knowledge of history and of all questions of social science, there seems to be little of anything that could be more important than these questions. It would seem that there should be no necessity for these great causes to be compelled to fight for their existence in the curriculum of the high schools. In the actual affairs of life these to-day are almost, if not quite, essential. When a great political party only four years ago went to the nation in an independent way and was almost successful largely upon these social questions, it would seem that the American people were quite interested in their vital features. Certain social sciences properly selected and judiciously studied, together with economics of government as well as private affairs should not be neglected in any public system of education. As business is broadening and international trade being extended, a knowledge of the history of all people would seem to me to be a first consideration.

I wish you success in your efforts to accomplish the results which you seem to be trying to advance as I gather from the spirit of your letters.

Yours very truly,

JOHN FRANKLIN FORT.

VALUE OF ECONOMICS.

The value of a course in economics was brought forcibly home to the visitor by a placard upon which were tabulated the results of a questionnaire sent out a few years ago to the graduates of what was then the only high school in the city. Seventy-nine students replied. The questions and answers follow:

What line of work pursued in the high school has been of greatest interest to you since you left high school?

Ans. English, 22; History, 8; Mathematics, 5; Economics, 23; Science, 7; Languages, 0.

Which line do you think has influenced your conduct most?

Ans. English, 18; History, 8; Mathematics, 1; Economics, 40; Science, 1; Languages, 1.

Which, in your judgment, more than any other, makes for consideration of others?

Ans. English, 1; History, 3; Mathematics, 0; Economics, 65; Science, 1; Languages, 0.

Which teaches the student the most about the life of to-day?

Ans. English, 0; History, 1; Mathematics, 0; Economics, 75; Science, 1; Languages, 0.

Which do you think more than any other fits one to be the person of influence in the community you would like to be?

Ans. English, 7; History, 1; Mathematics, 1; Economics, 52; Science, 0; Languages, 0.

It might be said in conclusion that the success of the exhibit was largely due to the hearty co-operation of the teachers of the social sciences in the four high schools of the city.

History an Essential of Catholic Education

BY THE REVEREND BROTHER D. EDWARD, LL.D., PRESIDENT OF LA SALLE COLLEGE.

He who is ignorant of what happened before his birth is, according to Cicero, always a child. Strictly speaking, he cannot be called educated, no matter how much else he may know, for education not only implies "systematic instruction" but "development of character and mental powers" into full manhood. Accordingly no one can be regarded as educated unless he has a fair knowledge of the world's history, which the Oxford Dictionary defines as "a continuous methodical record of public events; study of growth, of growth of nations; whole train of events connected with nation, person, thing, etc." Every Catholic college worthy of the name should, therefore, have a history course conducted concurrently with the other studies, and pursued with no less care and diligence, as regards aim and method of instruction.

How should such a course be most advantageously carried on? Here, as in other matters, it is easy to formulate a theory, but far from easy to put that theory into practice in such a way as to make the teaching as effective as possible. The first essential is a good text-book—one that is not overloaded with minor details and innumerable dates, but one that narrates the leading events in a style which, while entertaining, is not rhetorical; for "brilliant writing is a most delusive guide." "It is far more important to the training of the human mind, and the true interest of historical truth," says Prof. Henry O. Wakenman, of Oxford, "that the beginner should learn the place which a period occupies in the story of the world, than to have an accurate knowledge of the smaller details of its history." In the second place, the teacher should be deeply interested, almost an enthusiast, in his subject. Moreover, he should be so equipped with knowledge, as to be able to supplement the text of the class book, and to guide the pupil in the best supplementary reading.

What should be the topics chiefly discussed in a college class-book of history? Surely, they ought not to be in the main, recitals of wars and the crimes of ambitious and wicked despots. As Frederic Harrison well remarks, "Better to know nothing of the past than to know only its follies, though set forth in

eloquent language and with attractive anecdote. . . . Let this be our plan of what is history and what is not, that it teaches us something of the advance of human progress, and that it tells us of those mighty spirits who have left their mark on all time, and that it shows us the nations of the earth woven together in one purpose, or is lit up with those great ideas and great purposes which have kindled the conscience of mankind." And so we see that Freeman has given us a very narrow view of history when he defined it as past politics; though happily he overleaped such barriers when he advanced the high ideal that "the historian is an impartial judge, who prefers the blunt frankness of truth to the prudent silence of friendship;" and yet, how singular after such a standard of excellence to find him occasionally lapsing into flippancy in his most serious dissertations, as, for instance, when in his "Methods of Historical Study" he speaks of "the way in which royal and princely persons seem to have sometimes won the honors of saintship on easier terms than meaner folk . . . ; of the days when crusades were preached as an easy means for laymen to win salvation without the trouble of leading Christian lives." Such innuendos the Catholic teacher should be ever ready to dispose of, especially when they occur in the works of historians of such weight and influence as Freeman's.

We must remember, however, that Freeman was then discussing some of the troubles with which the painstaking historian has to contend, and in regard to which he says towards the close of his first lecture: "In all these ways we have to struggle with difficulties which surely do not beset other pursuits in anything like the same measure. Nowhere else is half knowledge so likely to be mistaken for real knowledge. Nowhere else is it so large a part of the work of him, who would really understand his subject, first of all to unlearn a vast proportion of all that he has learned. The work of unlearning must have its turn in all studies, whenever a new light shows the old doctrines to be mistaken. In historical study it is needful, not only because new light is often thrown on this or that point, but because many prefer darkness to light, old or new."

While the "evil that men do" cannot be overlooked by the historian, it is their good works that should chiefly engage his attention. If the "proper study of mankind is man," in historical study more emphasis should be placed on the influence of him who has labored for the uplift of his age and nation rather than on him who was content "to wade through slaughter to a throne and shut the gates of mercy on mankind." "Histories," says F. Garrison, "have been written which are nothing but minute pictures of scoundrelism and folly triumphant; wretches, who if alive now could be consigned to the gallows and the hulks, who have only to take, as it is said, a place in history, and generations after generations of learned men will pore over their lives, collect their letters, their portraits or their books, search out every fact in their lives with prurient inquisitiveness, and chronicle their rascalities in twenty volumes. Such stories, some may say, have a human interest. So has the "Newgate Calendar" a human interest of a certain kind. . . . In search of an effective subject for a telling picture, men have wandered into strange and dismal haunts. We none of us choose our friends on such a plan. Why, then, should we choose thus the friends around whom our recollections are to centre?

"We none of us wish to associate with a man simply because he is a picturesque looking villain, nor do we bring to our firesides men who have the reputation of being the loudest braggarts or keenest sharers of their times."

"Let us pass by untouched these memories of the unmemorable, these lives of those who never can be said to have lived. Pass them all; these riotings, intrigues and affectations of worthless men and worthless ages. It does not profit to know the names of all the kings that ever lived, and the catalogues of all their crimes and vices, and a minute list of their particular weaknesses."

"And they call this history. This serving up in spiced dishes of the clean and the unclean, the wholesome and the noxious. No good can come of such work without plan, without purpose, without breadth of view, without method. It is a kind of a sacrilege to the memory of the great men, to whom we owe all we prize, if we waste our lives poring over the acts of the puny creatures who only encumbered their path."

If history is "philosophy teaching by example," if it is "the essence of innumerable biographies," if it is "the biographies of mankind," if "we are so deeply indebted and so indissolubly bound to preceding ages," if "all our hopes of the future depend on a sound understanding of the past," if "history is the record of the growth, advancement and improvement of civilization," then "we cannot fancy any knowledge more important than the knowledge of the way in which this civilization has been built up. If the destiny of our race, and the daily actions of each of us, are so completely directed by it, the useful existence in turn depends upon a right estimate of that which has so constant an influence on us. In a word, it is essential that the students of history mistake none of the elements that go to make up that civiliza-

tion as a whole, and see them in their due relations and harmony."

This brings us to that class of objectors "who, far from denying the interest in the events of the past, far from seeing no use at all in their study, are only too ready in discovering a multitude of reasons for it, and at seeing in it a variety of incongruous purposes. If they suppose that it furnishes us with parallels when similar events occur, the answer is that similar events never do and never can occur in history. The history of man offers one unbroken chain of constant change, in which no single situation is ever replaced. The story of the world is played out like a drama in many acts and scenes, not like successive games of chess, in which the pieces enact, combat and manoeuvre, for a time, only to be cleared for another trial, and replaced in their original positions. Political maxims drawn crudely from history may do more harm than good. You may justify anything from a pointed example in history. It will show you the instances of triumphant tyranny and triumphant tyrannicide. You may find in it excuses for any act or any system. What is true of one country is wholly untrue of another. What leads to a certain result in one year, leads to a wholly opposite result in another.

"All knowledge is imperfect, we may almost say meaningless, unless it tends to give us sounder notions of our social and human interests. What we need are clear principles about the moral nature of man as a social being; about the elements of human society, about the nature and capacities of understanding. We want landmarks to guide us in our search after worthy guides, or true principles for social and political action. Human nature is unlike inorganic nature in this, that its varieties are greater and that it shows continual change. . . . Age after age develops into new phases. It is a duty of life, of growth, of variety. . . . Hence it is that in all political, all social, all human questions whatever, history is the main source of the inquirer."

It is especially the armor with which the Catholic student must equip himself if he wishes to be prepared to meet the attacks of the Church's enemies; for bitter enemies she has, as she had in the days of her infancy, whose calumnies require the services performed in the early ages by the Ante-Nicene Fathers, and later on by men like St. Athanasius and St. Augustine. "The critical sense," it has been well said, "is very slightly developed in the majority of mankind," and this majority can be imposed upon by specious, special pleaders, unless competent scholars are on hand to expound the truth, men of urbanity as well as of sound learning." For it is no longer true as Count Joseph de Maistre could justly say a hundred years ago, that "History as written for the last three centuries has been an organized conspiracy against the truth." At the time of his death, the age of honest research was in its infancy. Its pioneers were Hallam, Guizot, Ranke, and Milman. But though the honest work of the non-Catholic historians has been vastly improved upon by their successors, yet few of them are free from insinuations and slurs, calling for correction and refutation. By no means, for instance,

can we accept every statement made and every opinion expressed by Frederic Harrison, though he has written in one of his essays, the second in his "Meaning of History," a most eloquent tribute of the Medieval Church. Hence we are not surprised to find in Harrison such an amalgam of blame and praise as is conveyed by the following exhortation:

"Let us think of it, the Medieval Church," he says, "as it was at its best; and in this, forget even the cruelty, the imposture, and the degradation of its fall; let horror for its vices and pity for its errors be lost in one sentiment of admiration, gratitude and honor, for this the best and the last of all the organized systems of human society; of all the institutions of mankind, the most worthy of remembrance and regret."

In this sentence we have a hint of the need of thoroughly equipped Catholic teachers of history. The Church must act through human instruments, and these, it must be confessed, have sometimes been lamentably weak. There is nothing to be gained by blinding this fact, as Pope Leo XIII so emphatically pointed out in his letter of August 17, 1883, on historical studies. Adopting Cicero's dictum, "Never fear to tell the truth, never dare to tell a lie," he, by implication, censured those Catholic historians who have ignored or tried to extenuate unpleasant facts, who, had they lived in the time of Christ, would have told us nothing of the denial of St. Peter, or Judas' betrayal of his Master. It is our duty to admit that, and to explain why, the Church has occasionally been afflicted by the conduct of her faithful servants. Generally, as in the tenth and the eleventh centuries, these were thrust upon her by purely worldly and selfish political interests, a condition which the teacher should always be prepared to explain. He should also be able to explain how the transfer of the Papal residence to Avignon helped to disaffect opinion in Germany, and thus prepare the way for both the Great Schism of the West, and the struggle between the Popes and the Councils of the fifteenth century, a struggle which ultimately developed into the religious revolt of the sixteenth century. As a contributory cause of that calamitous upheaval, he must admit the weakness of the Pontiffs of that period of seventy years, and their servility in betraying the best interests of their high and most sacred trust. . . . He must also be able to show that the so-called Reformation was more of a political than of a religious movement, that, in fact, the latter was doomed to failure, without the former. In support of this thesis, he can cite many of the prominent non-Catholic historians, among them, the contributors to the early volumes of the Cambridge Modern History, and many more within easy reach. Their tone may be summed up in this declaration of a writer unfriendly to the Catholic Church, the late Henry Charles Lea. "The motives, both remote and proximate, which led to the Lutheran revolt, were largely secular rather than spiritual." Lea also points out that "together with the progress of the Reformation, a phase of absolute monarchy had developed itself, through which European nations passed, and the enforcement of the *regalia* put an end to a large part of the grievances which had caused the

Church of the fifteenth century to be fiercely hated. Whether or not the population were benefited by the change of masters, the Church was no longer responsible; for in the loss of her authority and in the final secularization of her temporalities she has found recompense tenfold in the renewed vigor of her spiritual vitality."

But the struggles of the Popes to maintain that vitality and the liberty essential to it have not always been fully appreciated and correctly represented by non-Catholic historians. "Ignorance of religion," the late Lord Acton says of such writers, "has been a great calamity, but not a greater calamity than ignorance of the true nature of liberty. The Church has more to fear from political errors than from religious hatred. In a state really free, passion is impotent against her. In a state without freedom, she is almost as much in danger from her friends as from her enemies. . . . A clergy dependent for its support on the people is emancipated from the influence of the State, and directly subject to the authority of the Holy See. . . . The Church is affected not by the form of government, but by its principle. She is interested not in monarchy and republicanism, but in liberty and security against absolutism. The rights and duties which she upholds are sacred and inviolable, and can no more be subject to the vote of the majority than to the decree of a despot." "The basis of all human order is," says Pascal, "the multitude, which if not reduced to unity is confusion; the unity which depends not on the multitude is tyranny."

Let the teacher, then, dwell on the lives of those glorious Popes of the eleventh, twelfth and thirteenth centuries who contended against the Franconian and Suabian Emperors—tyrants who would, if they could, as Freeman well says, have completely subjected the Church to the State, who would have adopted that "invariable law of the East, which makes nationality and religion the same thing," a law that in the sixteenth century became a basic principle of Protestantism; but at the same time the teacher should, when discussing the great dispute concerning investitures, be careful to point out the mischief that was wrought by the German bishops, who were also temporal princes." Then especially, again to quote Freeman, "the tyrants of the people were the slaves of the king." These prince-bishops, by refusing to surrender their estates in accordance with a provision of the Concordat of Worms (1122), bequeathed to remote posterity a legacy fraught with direct mischief, seeing that it became a most potent aid to the leaders of the Protestant movement. Many other instances of leading topics might be dwelt upon; especially the glories of that wondrous period to which Frederic Harrison has devoted one of his most fascinating chapters in his volume entitled, "The Meaning of History," a chapter that may have suggested to Doctor Walsh the title of his best known book, "The Thirteenth, the Greatest of Centuries." At any rate, the lesson to be learnt from both authors is that, "Of all the subjects of study, it is history which stands most sorely in need of a methodical plan of reading."

History in North Central High Schools*

BY LEONARD V. KOOS, UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON.

This article deals with the teaching of history in the high school. It is concerned with the extent and nature of the offering in history, the years of appearance of the several courses and the reasons given for these years of appearance, the time devoted to each course, the organization of the courses, the larger and more significant aspects of method, and the aims kept prominent by the teachers of the subject. It presents the results of an investigation by questionnaire into the status of the teaching of history in the secondary schools of the north central States.

The questionnaires were sent to about 300 teachers of history in the high schools on the approved list of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. These teachers had been previously designated by their principals as being "constructively interested in the development of effective courses of study and willing to co-operate" in the investigation. Because of the method of the selection of the teachers to whom copies of the questionnaire were sent, we can with some degree of assurance say that we have in the facts here assembled a composite photograph not merely of the status of history teaching in north central States, but of the status of the better history teaching in these schools.

A total of 244 responses were received from teachers of history in 163 different schools. Table I is here reproduced to show the distribution by subjects and States of these responses. It will be seen that 71, 52, 17 and 104 responses, respectively, were received to the questionnaires in ancient, medieval and modern, English, and American history, and that we have a fair representation of States in the material used in the study.

I. THE OFFERING IN HISTORY.

THE EXTENT OF THE OFFERING.

All but one of the 163 different schools from which the responses to the inquiry have come have complied with the request to set down their history sequences. These offerings in history, exclusive of the courses in civics and economics, extend through from one to four courses, as follows:

1 school offers a single course.

9 schools offer 2 courses.

98 schools offer 3 courses.

54 schools offer 4 courses.

The 1 school offering but a single course reports it as ancient history. Of the 9 schools offering 2 courses, 2 offer ancient and American, 1 offers general and American, 1 offers English and American, and 5 offer ancient and medieval and modern. The offering in the 98 schools reporting 3 courses is as follows: 79 offer ancient, medieval and modern,¹ and Ameri-

can, and 19 offer ancient, English, and American. All the 54 schools reporting 4 courses offer ancient, medieval and modern,¹ English, and American history.

TABLE I.—DISTRIBUTION BY STATES OF THE SCHOOLS FROM WHICH RESPONSES TO THE INQUIRY IN THE SEVERAL COURSES IN HISTORY HAVE COME.

STATE	Ancient History	Med. and Modern History *	English History	American History	Total
Colorado	1		1	4	6
Illinois	15	8	3	18	44
Indiana	7	4	2	13	26
Iowa	3	4	1	8	16
Kansas	4	1		6	11
Michigan	8	8	1	13	30
Minnesota	5	2	2	2	11
Missouri	8	7	2	11	28
Montana	2	1			3
Nebraska	2	1	1	3	7
North Dakota ...			1	1	2
Ohio	11	9	3	10	33
Oklahoma	1			1	2
South Dakota ...	1	4		3	8
Wisconsin	4	2		11	17
Total	71	52	17	104	244

* With these have been included 6 reports on modern history.

YEARS OF APPEARANCE OF THE COURSES.

The years of appearance of the courses in history as indicated in the responses are presented in Table II. The facts in brief are these: Ancient history appears almost an equal number of times in first and second years, with only a few listing it for third year; medieval and modern history appears with almost equal frequency in second and in third year, a very few listing it for fourth; English history is predominantly a third-year subject, with a sprinkling in other years; American history is almost always reported in fourth year, although a few schools list it for third and one school for first.

The teachers were asked to state what aspects of the various subjects as they are taught recommend them for the years in which they are reported. The answer most commonly given for the place of ancient history

TABLE II.—YEARS OF APPEARANCE OF THE SEVERAL COURSES IN HISTORY.

Year or Years in High School	Ancient	Medieval and Modern	English	American
1	33		2	1
2	29	25	1	
1-2	5			
3	4	23	11	5
2-3		1		
4		2	1	96
3-4		1	1	2
2-3-4			1	
Total Number of Responses to Questionnaire	71	52	17	104

* Copyright, 1916, by L. V. Koos.

¹ A few of these report modern instead of medieval and modern history, but for convenience they have been included here.

is its position in the chronological sequence in the historical field; many teachers seem to believe that the study of history must be begun at the beginning of recorded history. A number of teachers speak of ancient history as being easier of comprehension than subsequent courses: "The easiest of all history courses," "the relative simplicity of government and other institutions prior to Rome," "the story element in Oriental history and the biographical character of Greek and Roman history." Others say it is recommended for this place by its foundational relation to other subjects in the high school program of study—e.g., Latin, art, and English. Eight teachers recommend it for second year because it is "too difficult for freshmen." Other answers are less significant.

Medieval and modern history, also, is recommended by many teachers for the years in which it commonly appears because of its place in chronological sequence: "Medieval and modern should follow ancient history," "medieval and modern should come between ancient and American," "medieval and modern should be given in the second year as preparation for later history." Several teachers speak of the advantages it offers for correlation with the English literature that usually appears in these years. Eight teachers listing it as a third-year subject, mention the maturity desirable for its adequate comprehension. Other answers are less significant and less frequent.

English history is recommended by the teachers for its usual place in third year because of its position in chronological sequence. Frequent answers are: "It should follow medieval and precede American history," and "It should precede American history." Correlation with English literature is also given as a reason for its place here.

American history, also, is very commonly recommended for its place in fourth year by its position in chronological sequence: "It should follow medieval and modern and English history," "culmination of all previous history," etc. However, another very common recommendation appears among the answers—the need of civic training for the student soon to be graduated. Other answers refer to the maturity needed for its proper comprehension, the desirability of separating it from the American history of the elementary school, its required place in high school normal training courses (Kansas), and the opportunity offered of correlating it with American literature appearing in this year.

One cannot refrain from calling special attention to a fact that every reader has probably noted in these reasons for the years of appearance of the several courses—i.e., how firmly entrenched the tradition of the necessity of chronological sequence is in the thinking of these teachers of history.

TIME ELEMENT.

Weeks in the Courses. With 8, 3 and 4 exceptions, respectively, courses in ancient, medieval and modern, and English history are a full year of not less than 36 weeks in length. The exceptions are:

Ancient history—

17 weeks, 1 school.
18 weeks, 2 schools.
24-36 weeks, 1 school.
33 weeks, 1 school.
34 weeks, 3 schools.

Medieval and modern history—

18 weeks, 2 schools.
34 weeks, 1 school.

English history—

18 weeks, 3 schools.

It is probable that teachers reporting 17, 33 and 34 weeks have subtracted time set apart for semester or other examinations.

Nineteen of the 104 schools from which responses on American history were received report courses a half-year of 18 to 20 weeks in length, 79 report a full year of 36 or more weeks, and 1 school each reports 24, 25, 26, 28 and 33 weeks. This marked diversity of practice will be partially explained later under the head of "Organization of the Course in American History." It may be said in passing that it is more seeming than real, and grows out of variation between two extremes of practice, one of presenting American history and government as separate courses and the other of presenting them as coherent constituents of a single course.

Periods per Week. The number of periods per week devoted to courses in history is almost always 5. The exceptions are: In ancient history, 8 schools report 4 periods and 1 reports 7 periods; in medieval and modern history, 1 school reports 4 periods; in English history, 1 reports 4 periods; and in American history, 2 report 4 periods, and 1 reports 7.

Length of Periods. The length of periods for classes in history are shown in Table III. Almost no schools provide periods less than 40 minutes in length, while all but a small proportion of schools provide

TABLE III.—NUMBER OF SCHOOLS REPORTING THE SEVERAL LENGTHS OF CLASS PERIODS FOR COURSES IN HISTORY.

Length of Period in Minutes	Ancient and Modern	Medieval and Modern	English	Ameri- can
35			1	
37				2
40	26	19	7	38
41				2
42	2	2		3
43	1	1		1
45	32	26	7	44
50	2	2	1	5
55	2			3
60	*5	1	†1	4
65	1			1
80				†1
No Answer			1	

Total Number of Responses to
Questionnaire

71 52 17 104

* Two of these report supervised study during half the period.

† Supervised study during half the period.

periods from 40 to 45 minutes in length. It is deserving of note that at least 4 schools provide time for supervised study, 3 of them during a 30-minute and the fourth during a 40-minute period.

II. ORGANIZATION OF THE COURSE IN AMERICAN HISTORY.

Indirect testimony as to the organization of courses in ancient, medieval and modern, and English history is given below in the material on the method of the use of the texts; the text-books are seen to dominate the courses, and, therefore, largely determine the organization. The only course in history concerning whose organization and content a direct question was put was American. The question read: "If American history is taught as a part of a course in American history and government, what fractional part of the course is devoted to each?" Twenty-eight of the 104 teachers report definitely that they do not make government a part of the course in American history. Of these 28, 19 are those specified above under "Weeks in the Courses," as reporting a half-year course in the subject. In all but 2 of these 19 cases, the half-year course in American history is followed by a separate half-year in government or civics. The remaining 9 of this group of 28 may be understood to exclude special and distinct recognition of work in government from their courses in American history.

The remaining 72 who answer this question² signify that their courses are made up in some part of work in government. The fractional parts devoted to the two aspects of the courses may be seen in Table IV.

TABLE IV.—PROPORTIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF TIME TO HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT IN COURSES IN AMERICAN HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT IN SCHOOLS REPORTING THESE AS CONSTITUENTS OF A SINGLE COURSE.

Number of Schools	Proportion of Total Time devoted to History	Proportion of Total Time devoted to Government
36	1/2 to 3/5	2/5 to 1/2
27	2/3 to 3/4	1/4 to 1/3
9	4/5 to 5/6	1/6 to 1/5

Thirty-one of the 36 whose answers are tabulated as devoting 1/2 to 3/5 of the total time to history, or 43 per cent. of the 72 schools here concerned, divide the time equally between history and government, whereas all the remaining 41 schools devote from somewhat more than 1/2 to 5/6 of the total time to history, and 1/6 to somewhat less than 1/2 the time to government.

The facts appearing here may be summarized as follows: Courses in American history range between two extremes of practice, one typified by such schools as constitute them in no special part of government, and the other by those that divide the time equally between history and government. The schools ap-

proximating the latter extreme follow either the practice of making the work in history and in government coherent parts of a single course or that of separating the work into two distinct courses, one of which is American history and the other government or civics. We have in this great disparity in practice a notable example of a need of standardization of the organization and method of school courses on the basis of scientific studies that will point definitely in one direction or another. One suspects that by means of such a study some one best method and organization could be found.

III. METHODS.

HOW TEXT-BOOKS ARE USED.

The method of use of the text-book is a matter of great importance in the teaching of history. This investigation aimed at finding current practices in this regard. Four modes of using the text-book were listed in the questionnaire, and the teachers were asked to signify which of these modes they are following. These modes were listed in the order of decreasing dependence upon the text, and were as follows: (1) "As the main body of the course with little or no collateral reading." (2) "As the basis of assignments to be supplemented by required collateral readings." (3) "As an outline or syllabus in connection with collateral readings," and (4) "On the same basis as other readings of the course." The facts appearing in compilation of the responses are set forth in Table V, which shows the numbers of teachers reporting each of the uses listed. In order better to bring out the significance of these facts,

TABLE V.—NUMBERS OF TEACHERS OF HISTORY FOLLOWING THE SEVERAL METHODS OF USING THE TEXTBOOK.

Mode of Use	COURSE			
	Ancient	Medieval and Modern	English	American
(1)	19	7	2	18
(2)	44	40	10	67
(3)	3	1	1	5
(4)	1			5
Some Combination of (1), (2), (3) and (4)	4	1	3	3
Not Answering or Answering Indefinitely	—	3	1	6
Total Number of Responses to Questionnaire	71	52	17	104

they have been computed in percentages and reproduced in Table VI. On account of the relatively small number of responses to the inquiry in English history, too much importance should not be attributed to the figures for that subject. Mode (2) is most commonly used in all courses. It appears, however, that there is a somewhat greater tendency to follow mode (1) in ancient history than in subsequent courses. Corresponding to this is the less apparent tendency to follow mode (2) in medieval and modern and in American history. The percentages using modes (3) and (4) in all courses are notably small.

² Two of the 104 teachers did not answer this question, and the answers of two others were indefinite.

TABLE VI.—PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS OF HISTORY FOLLOWING THE SEVERAL METHODS OF USING THE TEXTBOOK.

Mode of Use	COURSE			
	Ancient	Medieval and Modern	English	American
(1)	26.8	13.5	11.8	17.3
(2)	62.0	76.9	58.8	64.4
(3)	4.2	1.9	5.9	4.8
(4)	1.4			4.8
Some Combination of (1), (2), (3) and (4)	5.6	5.7	17.6	2.9
Not Answering or Answering Indefinitely .	1.9	5.9	5.8	

In general it may be said that, although there is a tendency in the later courses to place less dependence on the text-book, this tendency is not as marked as one would be led to expect in view of the greater maturity of the student. The covers of a text-book far too frequently, and to too large an extent, fix the limits of our high-school courses in history.

COLLATERAL READING.

Amount of Collateral Reading. In order to make the amounts of collateral reading as reported by the teachers readily comparable, they were reduced to the uniform basis of the number of pages per semester. The resulting computations are not reproduced here, but it may be said that the approximate number of pages ranges from "none" to 3,500 in ancient history, from none to 900 in medieval and modern, from 50 to 900 in English, and from 25 to 1,500 in American. The median amounts are as follows:

Ancient History—250 pages per semester.

Medieval and Modern History—250 pages per semester.

English History—275 pages per semester.

American History—350 pages per semester.

These figures indicate that there is a tendency to increase the amount of collateral reading from the earlier to the later courses, although, in agreement with what was discovered in the data on the modes of use of the text, the difference is not as great as we are led to expect in consideration of the increasing maturity of the student.

Kinds of Collateral Reading. The following kinds of collateral reading were listed in the inquiry in history, the teachers being directed to indicate by checking those they require of their students: Other texts, more extended works, source material, biography, historical fiction, poetry, magazines, and newspapers. The percentages of teachers reporting use of these various kinds of reading supplementary to the text are presented in the accompanying table (VII). The most common kinds of collateral reading are the other texts, more extended works, source material, biography, and periodicals. While the proportion of the teachers reporting the use of the other texts is smaller, the proportion of those reporting the use of more extended works and source material is larger for the later than for the earlier courses. Biography also tends to become a somewhat more common constituent of later courses. The representation of historical

TABLE VII.—PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS REPORTING THE USE OF VARIOUS KINDS OF COLLATERAL READING.

Kinds of Reading	COURSES			
	Ancient	Medieval and Modern	English	American
Other Texts	77.5	69.0	47.1	60.6
More Extended Works .	42.3	71.2	64.7	85.6
Source Material	64.8	73.1	88.2	81.7
Biography	64.8	63.5	76.5	82.7
Historical Fiction . . .	28.2	38.7	35.3	40.4
Poetry	18.3	19.2	23.5	18.3
Magazines	42.3	76.9	64.7	85.6
Newspapers	31.0	75.0	47.1	70.2

fiction is fairly uniform throughout, although slightly more common in American history than in other courses. Poetry is a prominent constituent of the collateral reading in none of the courses. Magazines and newspapers seem to receive more attention in medieval and modern and in American history than in the two other courses, probably because of the availability of contemporaneous material in periodicals for the more modern aspects of these courses.

Modes of Testing Collateral Reading. A number of methods of testing collateral reading were listed in the questionnaire, and the teachers asked to signify, by checking, those of which they make use. They are set down here in the order of their frequency of use, followed in each case by the number of times they were checked: Oral reports in class, 218; discussions in class, 169; notebooks, 140; written reports, 113; quiz in class, 106; written examinations or tests, 103; outlines or digests handed in, 95; themes, 71.

CORRELATION.

The following subjects of study were listed in the questionnaire, and the teachers asked to indicate with which of them they make consistent efforts to correlate the work in history: English composition, English literature, geography, civics, political economy, Latin, current events, sciences, art and architecture, drawing, spelling, and penmanship. The results of the computations of the percentages of the teachers of the various history courses who make such efforts to correlate their work with the subjects named appear in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII.—PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS WHO REPORT EFFORTS TO CORRELATE HISTORY WITH OTHER SUBJECTS.

Subject with which History Is Correlated	COURSE			
	Ancient	Medieval and Modern	English	American
English Composition . . .	52.1	30.5	58.8	43.3
English Literature . . .	29.6	46.2	88.2	32.7
Geography	76.1	75.0	82.4	78.8
Civics	47.9	63.5	64.7	94.2
Political Economy . . .	29.6	44.2	35.3	69.2
Latin	42.3	17.3	35.3	5.8
Current Events	70.4	92.3	100.0	95.0
Sciences	21.1	19.2	23.5	15.4
Art and Architecture ..	57.9	42.3	47.1	15.4
Drawing	16.9	11.5	29.4	18.3
Spelling	74.6	50.0	70.6	60.6
Penmanship	52.1	42.3	64.7	64.4

The correlation of history with geography and current events is notably high for all courses, although, of course, the correlation of ancient history with current events cannot be expected to be as high as for other history courses. Correlation with English composition is fairly high throughout, while that with English literature is not high except, as we would anticipate, in the case of English history. Correlation with civics becomes increasingly prominent from course to course, until in American history it becomes almost the universal practice. Correlation with political economy is not high until American history is reached. As is to be expected, the correlation with Latin is highest for ancient history. The sciences and drawing do not share in this effort to a great extent in any course. Art and architecture receive considerable attention in the first three courses, but suddenly drop to an almost negligible position in American history. Spelling and penmanship seem to be fairly strong correlates in all courses. On the whole, while we find some teachers who fail to utilize the opportunities of interrelation that the subject of history affords, there is a very commendable tendency to do so.

IV. AIMS.

The aims listed in the questionnaire and the percentages of the teachers of each of the courses who have signified their concurrence in them will be found in Table IX. Aims (2), (6), (7), (9) and (10) are seen to be assented to by very large percentages of teachers for all courses, aim (7) becoming all but universal with teachers of American history. Aim (1) is concurred in by a larger proportion of teachers of ancient history than of teachers of other courses, which appears to conform to the tendency noted above under the head of "How Text-books Are Used" of a large percentage of the teachers of this course to use the text-book as the main body of the course with little or no collateral reading. The writer confesses that he was somewhat disappointed to discover that such a large proportion of the teachers should consider this a valid aim. Aim (3) naturally leaps into prominence in the course of American history, after having had only a fair holding in preceding courses. Aim (5) is considered a valid one by approximately three-fifths of the teachers in all courses. Aim (8) is generously subscribed to by teachers of all courses, but more especially by teachers of ancient and American history.

Teachers were asked to state any further aims they keep prominent in their methods of teaching history, and space was provided for such statement. Few teachers availed themselves of the opportunity given, and, from the conscientious manner in which the other questions of the inquiry were answered by nearly all teachers, we are led to conclude that the aims as stated comprehend all that this large group of teachers purpose to accomplish in their teaching of the subject. Such aims as were appended were for the most part readily classifiable under those submitted in the questionnaire.

TABLE IX.—PER CENT. OF CONCURRENCE OF TEACHERS OF HISTORY IN AIMS LISTED IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

Aims	Ancient	Medieval and Modern	English	Ameri- can
1. To master the text ..	59.2	44.2	52.9	46.2
2. To cultivate the power of handling facts	85.9	78.9	82.4	81.7
3. To develop the spirit of nationalism	42.3	40.4	47.1	70.2
4. To cultivate "reconstructive imagination"	59.2	55.8	82.4	59.6
5. To equip the student with a store of historical information ..	62.0	65.4	64.7	57.7
6. To develop the "faculty of discrimination"	67.6	75.0	94.1	82.7
7. To promote good citizenship	73.2	69.2	70.6	93.3
8. To develop the ability in speech, oral and written	76.1	65.4	58.8	76.0
9. To inspire with a love of reading	63.4	75.0	70.6	63.5
10. To teach the use of books	74.6	82.7	82.4	74.0

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WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 27.

10 a. m.—Ancient History. Assembly Room, ninth floor, Hotel Sinton.

Chairman, William A. Oldfather, University of Illinois.

Albert T. Olmstead, University of Missouri, "Mesopotamian Politics and Scholarship."

Ellen Churchill Semple, Louisville, Ky., "Climatic and Geographic Influences Upon Ancient Mediterranean Agriculture."

Herbert Wing, Dickinson College, "Tribute Assessments in the Athenian Empire."

Discussion opened by W. L. Westermann, University of Wisconsin.

10 a. m.—American History. Ball Room, ninth floor, Hotel Sinton.

Chairman, Allen Johnson, Yale University.

Arthur M. Schlesinger, Ohio State University, "The Uprising Against the East India Company."

Laura A. White, University of Wyoming, "Robert Barnwell Rhett and South Carolina, 1826-1852."

Robert P. Brooks, University of Georgia, "Howell Cobb, a Unionist of the Fifties."

Charles W. Ramsdell, University of Texas, "The Confederate Government and the Railroads."

Discussion.

1 p. m.—Luncheon and conference of members of Hereditary Patriotic Societies. (Details omitted here.)

3 p. m.—Eighth annual conference of the Archivists. (Details omitted.)

3 p. m.—Discussion of the field and method of the elementary course in college history. Ball room, Hotel Sinton.

Chairman, Arley B. Show, Leland Stanford, Junior, University.

A. Field. Should the same field be offered as a first course for all students? If only one, what field should be chosen? If more than one, what alternative should be allowed?

The discussion of this phase will be opened by William A. Frayer, University of Michigan. It will be continued by James F. Baldwin, Vassar College; Jesse E. Wrench, University of Missouri; Herbert D. Foster, Dartmouth College; Milton R. Gutsch, University of Texas.

B. Method. The lecture system. The text-book and quiz section. Reference reading and written work. The historical laboratory.

The discussion of this phase will be opened by Robert H. George, Yale University, and Curtis H. Walker, Chicago University.

It will be continued by Laurence B. Packard, University of Rochester; Henry R. Shipman, Princeton University; William K. Boyd, Trinity College, N. C.; Clarence P. Gould, College of Wooster; Carlton J. H. Hayes, Columbia University; Donald L. McMurry, Vanderbilt University; Wilmer C. Harris, Ohio State University; James G. McDonald, University of Indiana; H. Morse Stephens, University of California.

The subject will now be open for general discussion.

NOTE.—The speeches of the leaders of the discussion will be limited to ten minutes each. The speeches of those who continue the discussion to five minutes, and those who engage in the general discussion to three minutes.

8 p. m.—Recent Phases of the European Balance of Power. Ball Room.

Chairman, Wilbur H. Siebert, Ohio State University.

Charles Seymour, Yale University, "The Entente and the Isolation of Germany."

Jesse S. Reeves, University of Michigan, "Two Conceptions of the Freedom of the Seas."

William E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania, "England and Neutral Trade in the Present and Napoleonic Wars."

THURSDAY, DECEMBER 28.

(Sessions at the University of Cincinnati.)

10 a. m.—Conference of State and Local Historical Societies. (Details omitted here.)

10 a. m.—Conference of Secondary School Teachers of History. (Details omitted here.)

10 a. m.—History of China and of Japan. Auditorium, McMicken Hall.

Chairman, Payson J. Treat, Leland Stanford, Junior, University.

K. Asakawa, Yale University, "The Life of a Monastic Sho in the Middle Ages."

Edward T. Williams, Department of State, Washington, D. C., "Chinese Social Institutions as a Foundation for Republican Government."

Discussion opened by Dana C. Munro, Princeton University; Kenneth S. Latourette, Denison University; Stanley K. Hornbeck, University of Wisconsin; William F. Willoughby, Institute for Government Research, Washington, D. C.

3 p. m.—Annual business meeting. Auditorium, McMicken Hall.

8 p. m.—Presidential addresses. Ball Room, Hotel Sinton.

Joint meeting with American Political Science Association.

FRIDAY, DECEMBER 29.

10 a. m.—Great Peace Congresses of the Nineteenth Century. Library, second floor, Hotel Sinton.

Chairman, George M. Dutcher, Wesleyan University.

Charles D. Hazen, Columbia University, "The Congress of Vienna."

William Roscoe Thayer, Cambridge, Mass., "The Congress of Paris."

Robert H. Lord, Harvard University, "The Congress of Berlin."

Discussion.

10 a. m.—English History. Parlor F, second floor, Hotel Sinton.

Albert B. White, University of Minnesota, "Was there a 'Common Council' Before Parliament?"

Guernsey Jones, University of Nebraska, "Beginnings of the Oldest European Alliance."

Wallace Notestein, University of Minnesota, "Concerning Gardiner as a Historian."

Arthur L. Cross, University of Michigan, "The English Criminal Law and Benefit of Clergy in the Eighteenth and Early Nineteenth Centuries."

Discussion opened by George B. Adams, Yale University.

10 a. m.—General History. Parlor H, second floor.

Chairman, Merrick Whitecomb, University of Cincinnati.

Sidney B. Fay, Smith College, "The Beginnings of the Standing Army in Prussia."

Chalfant Robinson, Princeton University, "History and Pathology."

C. L. Chandler, Chattanooga, Tenn., "Admiral Charles Whiting, Wooster in Chile."

Augustus H. Shearer, Newberry Library, Chicago, "American Historical Periodicals."

Discussion opened by J. Franklin Jameson, managing editor of "American Historical Review," and Clarence W. Alvord, managing editor of "Mississippi Valley Historical Review."

1 p. m.—Luncheon conferences of committees.

3 p. m.—American History. Library, Hotel Sinton.

Joint meeting with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

Chairman, Frederic L. Paxson, University of Wisconsin.

J. A. James, Northwestern University, "Spanish Influence in the West During the American Revolution."

Reginald C. McGrane, University of Cincinnati, "The Pennsylvania Bribery Bill of 1836."

James R. Robertson, Berea College, Kentucky, "Sectionalism in Kentucky from 1855 to 1865."

6 p. m.—Dinner conferences of groups interested in various fields. In order to facilitate these conferences, no formal meeting of the Association will be held in the evening. There will, however, be a session of the American Political Science Association.

SATURDAY, DECEMBER 30.

10 a. m.—American Colonial Policy in the Philippines. Assembly Room.

Joint meeting with American Political Science Association.

Chairman, George L. Burr, president of the American Historical Association.

James A. Robertson, Washington, D. C., "The Philippine Islands Since the Inauguration of the Philippine Assembly."

Frank L. Crone, Kendallville, Ind., "The Education of the Philippine People."

Discussion.

10 a. m.—Medieval and Modern Constantinople. Parlor F, Hotel Sinton.

Chairman, Andrew C. McLaughlin, University of Chicago.

Paul J. J. van den Ven, Princeton University, "When Did the Byzantine Empire and Civilization Come Into Being?"

Albert H. Lybyer, University of Illinois, "Constantinople as Capital of the Ottoman Empire."

Archibald Cary Coolidge, Harvard University, "Claims Upon Constantinople, National, Geographical and Historic." Discussion.

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Reports from The Historical Field

The fall meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association was held at Brown University, Providence, R. I., on Saturday, October 21. The program, as previously announced in the MAGAZINE, was carried out. The following officers were chosen for the ensuing year: President, Miss Margaret McGill, Classical High School, Newtonville, Mass.; vice-president, Prof. H. M. Varrell, Simmons College, Boston, Mass.; secretary-treasurer, Horace Kidger, Technical High School, Newtonville, Mass. Additional members of the Council, Miss Harriett Tuell, High School, Somerville, Mass.; Miss Blanche Leavitt, Rogers High School, Newport, R. I.; Prof. George M. Dutcher, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.; and Prof. Orrin C. Hormell, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine.

The [English] Historical Association issued in October, 1916, Leaflet No. 42, comprising a bibliography of political theories. The paper is divided into two parts; first, works published upon the political theory of the Middle Ages to the end of the sixteenth century; and, secondly, works treating of political theories during the seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The latter division is further sub-divided into general works, special works and those dealing with England, America, France and Germany.

New York City, which is so rich in historic associations and so poor in historic landmarks, has come into the possession of the Dyckman House, built about 1783. The house is the gift of Mrs. Bashford Dean and Mrs. Alexander M. Welch, who are descendants of William Dyckman, the builder of the house. The building has been carefully restored to its original condition, furnished in the style of its period, and the grounds about it laid out in their original character. The plan is well conceived, and deserves to be followed in other parts of the country. It is important to note that no attempt has been made to construct a miscellaneous collection of historical relics in the house, but that it has been furnished in such a way as to give an adequate idea of a New York household at the close of the Revolution.

The Colorado Teachers' Association met in three places, instead of attempting to hold one session for the entire State. At the meeting of the Western Division, held at Grand Junction, October 30, 31, and November 1, Miss Elizabeth Chaney, of Montrose, presided over the Section on Civics and History. The Southern Division met at Pueblo on November 1, 2 and 3. The History and Civics Section was presided over by Lemuel Pitts, Jr. A series of papers was presented working out a program in history from the sixth to the twelfth grade. Prof. J. Parrish, of Colorado College, spoke upon "What the College May Reasonably Expect in History Preparation." The Eastern Division met at Denver on November 2, 3 and 4, and the History and Civics Section was presided over by Mr. Mark J. Sweeney, of Colorado Springs. The topics discussed were "The Ninth Grade Child in History Work," by Miss Louise A. Merrill, of Denver; "War and Peace in the Light of History," by Professor Eckhardt, of the University of Colorado, and "The Use of Magazines in History Classes," by Mr. D. Shaw Duncan, of the University of Denver.

The October number of the Bulletin of the Metropolitan Museum of Art announces a series of lectures for students

of history in the high schools. The lecturers are Miss G. M. A. Richter, Professors Von den Ven, James Harvey Robinson and Christian Gauss. These are scheduled for October 11, 25 and November 7 and 22, at 3.30. Professor Paul Von den Ven was formerly professor of Byzantine Philology at the University of Louvain, Belgium, and is now a lecturer at Princeton University. He will speak on "The Roman Empire in the East, Its Place as Between the Ancient and Modern World." Professor Robinson will speak of "Medieval Europe;" Professor Gauss on the "Eighteenth Century in France."

The museum is making a serious effort to popularize its collections, as is clearly indicated by the announcement in this issue of the Bulletin that Doctor Bashford Dean, Curator of the Department of Arms and Armor, will give a series of lectures covering the field "in an understandable way." The museum through its office staff addressed nearly three thousand New York City teachers assembled in the various institutes this autumn, emphasizing the possibility of co-operation between the schools and the museum.

A unique departure in this number of the Bulletin is an article "for boys and girls" describing a marble relief of a young horseman belonging to the fourth century B. C.

The Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City is carrying on some investigations, and has been preparing some material to assist teachers of civics in New York State. This work is under the direction of Prof. Charles A. Beard, of Columbia University, who is the supervisor of the training school for public service, which is connected with the Bureau.

A series of conferences upon the teaching of civics have been held in New York under the direction of Doctor Dawson, of Hunter College. A number of prominent teachers in New York and New Jersey have been meeting together to prepare a syllabus for the American Political Science Association covering some suggestions on the teaching of civics.

A third edition of President Jacob Gould Shurman's "The Balkan Wars, 1912-1913" has been issued by the Princeton University Press. Little change has been made between this and the second edition which appeared in December, 1914.

"Engraved Portraits of American Patriots Made by Saint Memin in 1796-1810" is the title of an illustrated article which appears in the October number of "Daughters of the American Revolution Magazine." Fifteen of the Saint Memin portraits are reproduced. Others will be published in forthcoming numbers of the magazine.

INDIANA HISTORY SECTION MEETING.

The History Section of the Indiana State Teachers' Association held a meeting Thursday, October 26, at Indianapolis, in connection with the annual session of the general association. The first part of the program was devoted to topics of a practical pedagogical interest. Prof. W. L. Lynch, of the State Normal School, read a paper on "The Correlation of History and Civics in the Seventh and Eighth Grades." The discussion of this topic, led by Mr. S. C. Morrill, of the Indianapolis Schools, resulted in the adoption of a resolution to appoint a committee to consider, in co-operation with the Indiana State Board of Education, the general subject of the correlation of the civics and history courses. Miss R. Katharine Beeson, of the Lafayette Schools, concluded this section of the program with a paper upon the general relations of the history and English courses.

For the second part of the program Prof. Andrew C. McLaughlin, of the University of Chicago, gave a most inspiring and suggestive address upon "The Value of Historical Study." The attendance for this address and for the first part of the program was especially good, approximately a thousand teachers being present. Following the more formal session a most enjoyable luncheon was given by the History Section in honor of Professor McLaughlin. Prof. Beverley W. Bond, Jr., of Purdue University, presided at both the meeting and the luncheon, while Miss Josephine Cox, of Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, acted as secretary. The business meeting of the History Section, at which reports will be heard and policies outlined, will be held in Indianapolis, the last of February.

IOWA SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS.

At the recent meeting of the State Teachers' Association, in the Social Science branch of that organization, the following officers were elected at its recent meeting: President, Prof. Gilbert G. Benjamin, Department of History, State University of Iowa; vice-president, Professor Peterson, Professor of Political Science, State Teachers' College, Cedar Falls, Iowa; secretary, Miss M. A. Hutchinson, Instructor of History, West Des Moines High School. Mr. Thomas Teakle, of West Des Moines High School, was made chairman of the Executive Committee.

This Association comprises university and college professors, instructors and teachers in the departments of political science, economics, sociology and history. At the last meeting, it was voted that the history section of the State Teachers' Association hereafter should be more closely allied with the social science teachers' association.

At the history section of the Social Science Teachers of the State Teachers' Association, the program was as follows: Chairman, Professor Clark, head of the Department of History, Drake University; "The Teaching of Iowa State History in the Schools of Iowa," Prof. Dan Clark, of the State Historical Society, Iowa City, Iowa; "The Method of Teaching Current Events in the High School," Prof. H. G. Plum, Professor of History, State University of Iowa; "The Iowa State Primary," Professor Peterson, Department of Political Science, Iowa State Teachers' College. This paper was read in the absence of Mr. Plum by Mr. Clifford H. Moore, Instructor of History, State University of Iowa. Prof. Charles Zueblin addressed the history and politics section on "The Ideal City."

It is hoped that a closer union between the instructors of history on allied subjects in our universities and colleges and in the secondary and lower schools may be brought about, and it is the further desire of the new administration that a separate meeting may be held in the spring aside from the meeting of the State Teachers' Association.

HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Additions to and corrections of the following list of associations are requested by the editor of the MAGAZINE.

Alabama History Teachers' Association, T. L. Grove, Tuscaloosa, Ala., member of Executive Council.

American Historical Association—Secretary, Waldo G. Leland, Washington, D. C.

History Teachers' Association of Cincinnati, O.—Secretary, J. W. Ayres, High School, Madisonville, O.

History Section of Colorado Teachers' Association; Western Division, president, Elizabeth Chaney, Montrose; Southern Division, president, Lemuel Pitts, Denver; Eastern Division, president, Mark J. Sweeney, Colorado Springs.

History Teachers' Association of Florida—President, Miss Caroline Brevard, Woman's College, Tallahassee; secretary, Miss E. M. Williams, Jacksonville.

Indiana History Teachers' Association—President, Beverly W. Bond, Jr., Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.; secretary, D. H. Eilsenberry, Muncie, Ind.

Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers—President, Prof. G. B. Benjamin, State University of Iowa; secretary, Miss M. A. Hutchinson, West Des Moines High School.

Jasper County, Mo., History Association—Secretary, Miss Elizabeth Peiffer, Carthage, Mo.

Kleio Club of University of Missouri.

Association of History Teachers of Middle States and Maryland—President, Miss Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia; secretary, Prof. L. R. Schuyler, City College, New York City.

Mississippi Valley Historical Association, Teachers' Section—Chairman, A. O. Thomas, Lincoln, Neb.; secretary, Howard C. Hill, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Missouri Association of Teachers of History and Government—Secretary, Jesse E. Wrench, Columbia, Mo.

Nebraska History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Julia M. Wort, Lincoln, Neb.

New England History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Mr. Horace Kidger, 82 Madison Avenue, Newtonville, Mass.

New York City Conference—Chairman, Fred H. Paine, East District High School, Brooklyn; secretary-treasurer, Miss Florence E. Stryker, State Normal School, Montclair, N. J.

New York State History Teachers' Association—President, Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City; secretary, R. Sherman Stowell, West High School, Rochester, N. Y.

History Teachers' Section of Association of High School Teachers of North Carolina—Chairman, Miss Catherine Alberston, Elizabeth City, N. C.

Northwest Association of Teachers of History, Economics and Government—Secretary, Prof. L. T. Jackson, Pullman, Wash.

Ohio History Teachers' Association—Chairman, Wilbur H. Siebert, Ohio State University, Columbus; secretary, Miss A. P. Dickson, Dayton.

Political Science Club of students who have majored in history at Ohio State University.

Rhode Island History Teachers' Association—Information desired.

History Section of Oklahoma Teachers' Association—Miss Mitchell, Central Normal School, Edmond.

South Dakota History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Edwin Ott, Sioux Falls, S. D.

Tennessee History Teachers' Association—Secretary-treasurer, Max Souby, Murfreesboro, Tenn.

Texas History Teachers' Section of the State Teachers' Association—President, Frederic Duncalf, Austin, Texas; secretary, L. F. McKay, Temple, Texas.

Twin City History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Miss Amanda Sundean, 2828 South Girard Avenue, Indianapolis, Minn., teacher in West High School.

Virginia History Teachers' Section of Virginia State Teachers' Association—President, Prof. J. M. Lear, Farmville; secretary, Katherine Wicker, Norfolk, Va.

Teachers' Historical Association of Western Pennsylvania—Secretary, Anna Ankrom, 1108 Franklin Avenue, Wilkinsburg, Pa.

West Virginia History Teachers' Association—President, Charles E. Hedrick, Glenville; secretary, Dora Newman, of Fairmont.

Wisconsin History Teachers' Association—Chairman, A. C. Kingsford, Baraboo High School; secretary, A. H. Sanford, La Crosse Normal School.

BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM SEPTEMBER 29 TO OCTOBER 27, 1916.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

American History.

Armstrong, William C. The battles in the Jerseys. Newark, N. J.: N. J. Soc. Sons of Am. Revolution. 26 pp. 25 cents.

Benavides, Alonso de. The memorial of Fray Alonso de Benavides, 1630. Wash., D. C.: W. H. Lowdermilk & Co. 300 pp. \$10.00, net.

Browning, Charles H. The Welsh settlement of Pennsylvania. Phila.: W. J. Campbell. 631 pp. \$4.00, net [new price].

Chadwick, F. Ensor. The Graves papers and other documents relating to the naval operations of the Yorktown campaign, 1781. N. Y.: Naval Hist. Soc. 268 pp. \$8.00.

Connor, Robert D. W. The story of the United States; for young Americans. Raleigh, N. C.: Thompson Pub. Co. 406 pp. 40 cents.

Cronaw, Rudolf. German achievements in America. N. Y.: [The Author]. 233 pp. \$1.00.

Cunningham, William. English influence on the United States. N. Y.: Putnam. 168 pp. \$1.25, net.

Fogarty, Kate H. The story of Montana. N. Y.: A. S. Barnes. 302 pp. \$1.00.

Forman, S. E. First lessons in American history. N. Y.: Century Co. 243 pp. 65 cents.

Hamilton, Joseph G. Party politics in North Carolina, 1835-1860. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of N. C. 212 pp. \$1.00.

Lewis, Capt. Meriwether, and Ordway, John. The Journals of Capt. Meriwether Lewis and Serg. John Ordway kept on the expedition of western exploration, 1803-1806. Madison, Wis.: Wis. State Hist. Soc. 444 pp. \$1.50.

Mace, William H. A beginner's history [of the United States]. Chicago and N. Y.: Rand McNally. 396 pp. 65 cents.

Mather, Irwin F. The making of Illinois. Chicago: Flanagan. 254 pp. 50 cents.

Newmark, Harris. Sixty years in Southern California, 1853-1913. N. Y.: Knickerbocker Press. 688 pp. \$5.00, net.

New Rochelle, N. Y. Records of the town of New Rochelle, 1699-1828. New Rochelle, N. Y.: Paragraph Press. 525 pp. \$3.00.

N. Y. (State) University, Div. of School Libraries. Annotated book list for secondary school libraries: History section. 75 pp. A list of books relating to the history of the State of New York. 49 pp. Albany, N. Y.: The University.

Stoudt, John B. The folklore of the Pennsylvania Germans. Phila.: W. J. Campbell. 155 pp. \$2.50, net.

Tomlinson, Everett T. The trail of the Mohawk chief, a story of Brant. N. Y.: Appleton. 313 pp. \$1.30, net.

Williams, Herschel. Young people's history of Massachusetts. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 287 pp. \$1.25, net.

Ancient History.

Breasted, James H. Ancient times; a history of the early world. Boston: Ginn & Co. 742 pp. (16 pp. bibl.). \$1.60.

Kuhn, Albert. Roma; parts 17, 18. N. Y.: Benziger. Each 35 cents.

Van Nostrand, John J., Jr. The reorganization of Spain by Augustus. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Cal. 154 pp. (9 pp. bibl.). 75 cents.

English History.

- Ervine, St. John G. Sir Edward Carson and the Ulster movement. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 125 pp. \$1.00, net.
 Gilbert, Henry. The story of the Indian meeting. N. Y.: Crowell. 349 pp. \$1.50, net.
 Jackson, F. J. F. Social life in England, 1750-1850. N. Y.: Macmillan. 338 pp. \$1.50, net.
 Meyer, Edward. England; its political organization and development. Boston: Ritter & Co. 328 pp. \$1.50, net.
 Stephens, James. The insurrection in Dublin. N. Y.: Macmillan. 148 pp. \$1.25, net.
 Stevens, D. H. Party politics and English journalism, 1702-1742. Menasha, Wis.: G. Banta Pub. Co. 156 pp. \$1.50, net.

European History.

- Van Loon, Hendrik W. The golden book of Dutch navigators. N. Y.: Century Co. 333 pp. \$2.50, net.
 Wergeland, Agnes M. History of the working classes in France. Chicago: Univ. of Chic. 136 pp. \$1.00, net.

The War.

- Adam, H. P., editor. International cartoons of the war. N. Y.: Dutton. 13 pp. + plates. \$1.50, net.
 Bailey, William F. The Slavs of the war zone. N. Y.: Dutton. 266 pp. \$3.50, net.
 Baldwin, Elbert F. The world war. N. Y.: Macmillan. 258 pp. 50 cents.
 Cassel, Gustav. Germany's economic power of resistance. N. Y.: Jackson Press. 80 pp. 50 cents.
 Gallishaw, John. Trenching at Gallipoli. N. Y.: Century Co. 241 pp. \$1.30, net.
 G., H. L. Meanwhile; a packet of war letters. N. Y.: Dutton. 168 pp. \$1.25, net.
 Howe, M. A. de Wolfe, editor. The Harvard volunteers in Europe. Cambridge, Mass.: Harv. Univ. \$1.00.
 Kay, Ross. Fighting in France. N. Y.: Barse & Hopkins. 243 pp. 60 cents.
 Lugaro, Ernesto. An emperor's madness; or a national aberration. N. Y.: Dutton. 135 pp. \$1.00, net.
 Mach, Edmund R. O. von, editor. Official diplomatic documents relating to the outbreak of the European war (Blue, White, Yellow, etc., books). N. Y.: Macmillan. Various paging. \$6.00, net.
 Noyes, Alexander D. Financial chapters of the war. N. Y.: Scribner. 255 pp. \$1.25, net.

Medieval History.

- Book of the Popes. The book of the Popes (*Liber Pontificalis*). I. To the pontificate of Gregory I. N. Y.: Lemcke & Beuchner. 169 pp. \$2.00, net.
 Gregory of Tours, Saint. History of the Franks. N. Y.: Lemcke & Beuchner. 284 pp. \$2.50, net.
 Wergeland, Agnes M. Slavery in Germanic society during the M. A. Chicago: Univ. of Chic. 158 pp. \$1.00, net.

Miscellaneous.

- Aaronsohn, Alexander. With the Turks in Palestine. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 84 pp. \$1.25, net.
 Bell, H. T. M., and Woodhead, H. G. W. The China year-book, 1916. N. Y.: Dutton. 792 pp. \$3.75, net.
 Fritschel, George J. The Formula of Concord: Its Origin and Contents. Phila.: Luth. Pub. Soc. 228 pp. \$1.25.
 Gray, Lewis K. The Mythology of all races. V. 9. Oceanic. Boston: M. Jones Co. 364 pp. (18 pp. bibl.). \$6.00.

Biography.

- Legge, Edward. The Empress Eugenie and her son. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 384 pp. \$3.00, net.
 Harris, Charles W. The Harris letters. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of N. C. 91 pp. 50 cents.
 Bissett, Clark P. Abraham Lincoln. Los Angeles, Cal.: Connell Smith Chaffin Co. 56 pp. \$2.00.
 Draycott, G. M. Mahomet, founder of Islam. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 351 pp. \$3.00, net.
 Hasbrouck, Louise S. Israel Putnam [biography for young people]. N. Y.: Appleton. 260 pp. \$1.35, net.

Government and Politics.

- Allen, Stephen H. The evolution of governments and laws. Princeton. N. J.: Princeton Univ. Press. 1226 pp. \$4.00, net.
 Howard, George F. Outlines in civil government, for Washington and the United States. [Rochester, Wash.: Hack & Wegner Co.] 48 pp. 25 cents.
 Hughes, Thos. J. State socialism after the war. Phila.: Jacobs. 351 pp. \$1.50, net.
 Key, Ellen K. S. War, peace, and the future. N. Y.: Putnam. 271 pp. \$1.50, net.
 Lapp, John A. Our America; the elements of civics. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill. 392 pp. (3 pp. bibl.). \$1.25, net.
 McCarthy, Charles, and others. Elementary civics. N. Y.: Thompson, Brown & Co. 232 pp. 75 cents.
 Mecklin, John M. Democracy and race friction. N. Y.: Macmillan. 270 pp. 50 cents.
 Waxweiler, Emile. Belgium and the great powers. N. Y.: Putnam. 186 pp. \$1.00, net.
 Wyeth, Newton. Republican principles and policies; a brief history of the Republican party. Chicago: Republic Press. 256 pp. \$1.25.

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETT RICHARDS, PH.D.

"The Virginia Magazine of History" for October publishes the Minutes of the Council and General Court of the Colony from 1622 to 1629.

The September number of the "National Geographic Magazine" is notable for the beautifully illustrated article by H. G. Dwight on "The Hoary Monasteries of Mt. Athos." The text accompanying the illustrations is well worth reading.

C. M. Bowen's "Elizabethan Travel Literature" ("Blackwood's" for October) is written to commemorate the tercentenary of the death of Hakluyt. While the author has had but meagre material for sources, he has used it to good advantage.

"Yugoslavs and Panslavism," by V. R. Savitch, in the "Asiatic Quarterly" for October, presents the Eastern situation with emphasis on the unifying elements to be found there. The author claims that the war is dismissing many prejudices regarding the Slavs, and is effecting a revision of the idea of Panslavism, which is defined as "the direct outcome of the dismemberment of the Slav nations which brought in its train weakness and their oppression by their more warlike neighbors." The article also traces the growth of Panslavism from 1830 when the movement first took shape by the formation of the first society of Slavophils.

The "Revue des Deux Mondes" for October contains an interesting article by M. Ernest Daudet on "The Suicide of Bulgaria," in which he traces the history of Franco-Bulgarian relations between the years of 1878-1915.

In the October number of "The Fortnightly Review," Eça de Queiroz's article on "The Emperor William" is translated by Charles Marriott. The sketch is remarkably appreciative, although not at all laudatory. The Kaiser's aim is said to be "a magnificent desire to experience and enjoy every form of action, with the supreme confidence that God guarantees and promotes the triumphant success of his every undertaking."

The leading article in "The Contemporary Review" for October is "The Balkan States and Turkey," by Sir Edwin Pears. In it he discusses the projects and ideals of these various States since 1877, as well as their diplomatic rela-

tions. With the exception of Turkey, the Balkan States are worth cultivating, he claims. The people of Roumania, Bulgaria, Serbia and Greece are full of the energy of newly-born people. Although they are divided among themselves, hostile to each other, and apparently possess conflicting interests, yet they are now facing a more serious struggle which should ultimately end in their becoming united to save their existence. At present their only common tie is their form of Christianity which is clearing itself from all forms of civilization, and is becoming a factor for their civilization.

In the November number of "The North American Review," Rev. William Eliot Griffis writes most entertainingly of "Okuma and the New Era in Japan." The resignation of the premier, whom he calls "the best hated and best loved man in the Japanese Empire," marks the end of the era of the creators of the "Charter Oath" and the beginning of an age of national expansion, marked by vigor and justice toward Russia, China and the United States. The author gives a careful, sympathetic and not too partisan study of the achievements of the ex-premier.

President Eliot's article on "Shall We Adopt Universal Military Service?" ("World's Work," November) is an argument in favor of abandoning our policy of political isolation, since we are no longer physically separated from Europe. The advantages of adopting the principle of universal military service are set forth clearly and logically. The illustrations for the article "On the Flanks of the Bulgar" in the same magazine are excellent.

The anxiety of the Irish people as to their political future, the problems of forcing Home Rule, the economic complexities bound to come from its enforcement, the lawlessness throughout the country which cannot be quelled by mere legislation are all admirably discussed by the Archbishop of Dublin in an article on Ireland in 1916, in the "National Review" for October.

Miltiades Christophides, the able editor-in-chief of "Atlantis," gives a brief sketch of the career and policy of Venizelos in the November "Review of Reviews."

The November "Century" contains a vivid "Story of the Irish Rebellion," by St. John G. Ervine, who was manager of the Abbey Theatre in Dublin at the time of the Sinn Fein Rebellion; and, also, Prof. James Harvey Robinson's excellent essay on "What is National Spirit?" in which the defects as well as the virtues of patriotism are recounted.

Arthur Bullard writes on "Our Relations with France" in the "Atlantic" for November. After tracing the history of Franco-American relations during the past century, he urges a "Franco-American agreement" on the grounds that by it we would be free from the imperialistic dangers which would arise from a dual alliance with Britain.

In "The Nineteenth Century" and after, Sir Malcolm McIlwraith, late Judicial Adviser to the Egyptian Government, has an excellent article on "The Mohammedan Law Courts of Egypt." The courts were revised and reorganized in 1897, and are now in a thoroughly sound condition, partly at least, because of the disappearance of the Turkish Grand Cadi and the personal influence of the Sultan.

Lindsay Rogers' study of "Popular Control of Foreign Policy" ("Sewanee Review," October) is based on the present situation in English government. The same magazine has an interesting article by Prof. Edward R. Turner, of the University of Michigan, on "Macaulay's History Illustrated," which gives much that exists which might be used to illustrate this work.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
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DALTON, SIR CORNELIUS NEALE. *The Life of Thomas Pitt.* Cambridge: At the University Press, 1915. Pp. xiv, 609. \$4.50.

This life of Thomas Pitt (1653-1726), the grandfather of the Earl of Chatham, has been made possible and desirable by reason of the large amount of source material that has become available. In 1889 the Hakluyt Society published Vol. III of Hedge's "Diary," which included "Documentary Contributions to a Biography of Thomas Pitt," by Sir Henry Yule. In 1892, Vol. I of the Dromore Manuscripts (H. M. C.) appeared; and recently in the Indian Record Series was published Love's "Vestiges of Old Madras." The careful use made of these materials has resulted in a large work of more than ordinary interest and importance.

The early chapters deal with Pitt's youthful successes in the Indian trade, in which he was an unusually able "interloper," as the poachers upon the trade of the established East India Company were called.

The Court of the East India Company vainly sought his arrest; but, after some partial successes against him and his fellows, finally decided that it would be expedient to take him into their service to fight off the rest. In this capacity he was appointed president of Fort St. George, in 1697; and fought the interlopers until 1702, when the old company combined with what had now become the new company. He still retained his position, which he held until 1709.

The latter part of his career, except in connection with his founding the family of Pitt, is not of such immediate historical importance. The story of the great diamond known as the "Pitt Diamond," or, after its purchase by the French crown, the "Regent," is told with some detail; and the diamond furnished indeed plenty of excitement both for Pitt and his friends and enemies until 1717, when the sale to France occurred.

Taken as a whole, the life of Thomas Pitt gives a good background for the proper comprehension of what was going on in the Anglo-Indian affairs of the period.

HENRY L. CANNON.

Stanford University.

BOWERS, CLAUDE G. *The Irish Orators. A History of Ireland's Fight for Freedom.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1916. Pp. 528. \$1.50.

Recent events have made all too seasonable this review of Ireland's political and social history from 1760 to recent times. The narrative consists of connected biographies of nine Irish patriots—Flood, Grattan, Curran, Plunket, Emmet, O'Connell, Meagher, Butt, and Parnell. These accounts are in the main well considered and temperate; they are also sympathetic, intimate and vivid, so that the reader has from them a sense of real acquaintance with the men described; they abound with citations from the most important speeches, and these serve both to illustrate the characteristics of the oratory of each of these eloquent Irishmen, and to emphasize the issues which were being fought for so passionately by them. Fourteen excellent reproductions of photographs add value to this volume which contains also a brief foreword of appreciation from Cardinal Gibbons.

BOYD, JOHN. Sir George Etienne Cartier, Bart. His Life and Times. A Political History of Canada from 1814 Until 1873. Toronto: Macmillan Co., 1914. Pp. 439. \$5.00.

This imposing book, written "in commemoration of the one hundredth anniversary of Sir George Etienne Cartier's birth," is of substantial merit. It treats of one of the "Fathers of Confederation," and one of the most interesting of them. Its special appeal is, of course, to the student of the history of the Dominion, but it is of much "comparative" value to the thoughtful American, who cannot fail to be impressed with the similarity between the problems on the two sides of the frontier line. The subject was active in the "Rebellion of 1837," that interesting struggle for responsible government. The formation of the Confederation, which turned in considerable measure upon the American Civil War, is treated in detail. The services of Cartier and of the Catholic clergy (p. 288), in winning the support of Quebec for the new experiment, are clearly set forth. The zeal of Cartier in pushing the great transcontinental railroad, the exacting of campaign contributions from would-be contractors for the railroad (p. 288), the inauguration of militia reforms, and the determination of Cartier to "perpetuate the hyphen," i. e., to maintain the integrity of the French-Canadian stock, and the religion which supports it so loyally—these topics write their own captions.

The book is slightly of the "memorial volume" type, lacks distinction of style, conciseness, and adequacy of bibliographical data, but it is nevertheless of real importance.

G. C. SELLERY.

The University of Wisconsin.

BASSETT, JOHN SPENCER. The Plain Story of American History. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. 545. \$1.00.

Although it is not so stated in either title or preface, we may assume that this is a grammar school text-book. With respect to the topics treated, the book presents no especial variation from the standard texts. A few chapters are worthy of note, however, such as the ones entitled, "Life in the Earliest Colonies" and "A New Attitude towards Foreign Nations" (1885-1895).

Two features of this book seem to distinguish it. First, its "simple but strong" language creates an air of reality, without any effort at picturesque description or overwrought narrative; in the second place, it contains from ten to thirty per cent. more words than other grammar school texts, and this permits the expansion of difficult topics. These two features go far towards justifying the title. The way to make a story "plain" to children is to expand it with sufficient (not too much) details, well arranged, and stated in simple, direct terms that they can understand. This, in the main, the author has done.

The pedagogical helps that follow each chapter consist merely of a list of questions upon the text and a short list of topics for further study, some of which are too difficult for grammar school pupils to handle. There are no references given anywhere in the book. This surely represents a minimum of such materials.

There are good maps and illustrations; those facing pages 41, 55, 318 and 424 seem to be misplaced with reference to the text they accompany.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

ARONOVICI, CAROL. The Social Survey. Philadelphia: The Harper Press, 1916. Pp. ix, 255. \$1.25.

The senior course in social science for the high school, which is now being planned by committees of the American Political Science Association and the National Education Association is a radical departure from the old courses in civics and economics. It, or something similar, is already in operation in many progressive schools. Instead of laying stress on economic and political theory, and the threadbare study of the constitution, it demands consideration by the young people of the social, political and economic problems immediately surrounding them. Like community civics, it is a study of the environment, only on a much more advanced and scientific plan. For such a course the careful and unprejudiced observation of conditions in the immediate community is fundamental. One thing which unfortunately acts as a deterrent to the introduction of such courses, is the lack of preparation of the teachers. Many teachers accustomed only to text-book work are appalled when they find that laboratory work is expected, and that their laboratory is the whole community. Of very great assistance to all teachers engaged in the active social studies will be this little book by Dr. Aronovici.

The author is Director of the Bureau for Social Research of the Seybert Institution, Philadelphia, and has been active in survey work for a number of years. In 1908 he began work in Providence, and was among the pioneers who demonstrated the necessity for scientific methods in the investigation of social conditions. One result was the increased demand for trained workers in social fields. At the request of the Unitarian Association, Dr. Aronovici wrote a small booklet which was used as a text-book in Unitarian Sunday Schools and by civic associations. In response to a request for a new edition, the work has been much enlarged and practically re-written. Some chapter headings of special interest to the teachers are: "The City Plan," "Local Government," "Industry," "Health," "Leisure" (recreation), "Education," "Welfare Agencies," "Crime."

It is not likely that classes will have time or inclination to make a complete survey, unless the community is a small one. The book, however, offers valuable suggestions which may be used in the investigation of any problem which the teacher deems wise to attempt. It gives under the separate headings, besides an analysis of the subject, questions suggestive of what the community should know of itself.

Community civics has made its way more generally, so far, than has the Senior Social Science. For this elementary work the teacher will find the book full of suggestions as to what is worth while considering with the children, and how to collect facts and material. Too much stress cannot be laid upon the desirability of some laboratory work in courses in the social sciences. Social theory that does not function is of little value. Unless students are trained to actual participation in community affairs, the courses will fail of their chief aim—good citizenship. Important, too, is the effect upon the mind in showing that social science is not all theory, as many people suppose, but based upon concrete and ascertainable facts.

The book fosters a hopeful, constructive attitude towards social problems—not that of the muck-raker but that of the thinker who would use the facts relating to social conditions, however unpleasant, as a basis of knowledge by which we may assist in the gradual improvement of communities.

JESSIE C. EVANS.

William Penn High School, Philadelphia.

Index to The History Teacher's Magazine

Volume VII, January to December, 1916

- Abbott, James F., Japanese Expansion and American Policies, reviewed, 252.
- Abel, A. H., The American Indian as a Slaveholder and Secessionist, reviewed, 141.
- Adams, John Quincy, Writings of, Vol. vi, reviewed, 320.
- Adams, Victoria A., review of Blumer's Home Life of Ancient Greeks, 32; Ashley's Ancient Civilization, 218; Hogarth's The Ancient East, 251.
- Agriculture, in the South since 1865, 224-229; American, 303.
- Agriculture in the United States, The Story of, by A. H. Sanford, reviewed, 321.
- Aids in High School Teaching, 283.
- Aims of history teaching, 156, 237, 351.
- Alaska, First Newspaper in, 233.
- Alfred the Great, by B. A. Lees, reviewed, 287.
- America to Japan, by L. Russel, reviewed, 105.
- American Diplomatic History in High School, by C. R. Fish, 39.
- American Government and Majority Rule, by E. Elliott, reviewed, 251.
- American Historical Association, account of thirtieth meeting, 64; committees, 65; Cincinnati program, 1916, 352.
- American History in High School, The Purchase of Louisiana, 185.
- American History, Readings in, by D. S. Muzzey, reviewed, 177.
- American Indian as Slaveholder and Secessionist, The, by A. H. Abel, reviewed, 141.
- American Life, Course in the History of, 301.
- American Political Science Association, 28; annual meeting, 66; report of committee on instruction, 66.
- American Political Science Review, 250.
- American Revolutionary History in High School, by C. E. Persinger, 7.
- Americanization, of Foreigners, 27, 56, 104, 174, 211, 250.
- Ancestral Homes of Noted Americans, by A. H. Wharton, reviewed, 18.
- Ancient Civilization, by R. L. Ashley, reviewed, 218.
- Ancient East, The, by D. G. Hogarth, reviewed, 251.
- Anderson, Dice R., William Branch Giles, reviewed, 320.
- Anderson, Frank, M., The World War and the Historians, 327.
- Archaeology and History, Some Relations between, by T. C. Thallon, 147.
- Are History Libraries Used to Best Advantage? by L. Pitts, 55.
- Aronivici, Carol, The Social Survey, reviewed, 357.
- Ashley, Roscoe L., Ancient Civilization, reviewed, 218; Medieval Civilization, reviewed, 252; review of Slater's The Making of Modern England, 321.
- Assignment of the history lesson, 230.
- Associations of History Teachers, list of, 215, 250, 269, 322, 354. See also under names of states and cities.
- Autobiographies, American, 80.
- Babylonia and Assyria, History of by R. W. Rogers, reviewed, 30.
- Barker, Ernest, Political Thought in England, reviewed, 104.
- Barker, Eugene C., review of Dodd's Expansion and Conflict, 218; of Paxson's The New Nation, 218.
- Bassett, John S., Life of Andrew Jackson, reviewed, 178; The Plain Story of American History, reviewed, 358.
- Beck, James H., The Evidence in the Case, reviewed, 217.
- Belgium, A Short History of, by L. Van der Essen, reviewed, 286.
- Belloe, Hilaire, High Lights of French Revolution, reviewed, 104.
- Benezet, L. P., The Story of the Map of Europe, reviewed, 286.
- Berringer, E. J., Definition of the Field of History, 203.
- Beveridge, Albert J., What Is Back of the War, reviewed, 31.
- Bibliographies, of American Revolutionary History, 7-14; of American Diplomatic History, 39-43; of school libraries, 52; of civics, 61; of political science textbooks, 67; of industrial history, 99; of the West in American History, 125-136; of European Background of American History, 163-169; of the Louisiana Purchase, 185-189; of Red Cross Society, 215; of the New South, 223-229, 270-275; of Latin America, 250; of the Negro, 275; of Aids in High School Teaching, 283; for Latin Clubs, 319. See also Book Reviews; Publications, Recent Historical.
- Bigelow, E. Lawrence, A System for Library Reference Work, 233.
- Biography, American, 80.
- Bismarckism, 331.
- Blumner, H., Home Life of the Ancient Greeks, reviewed, 32.
- Bond, Beverly W., Jr., A Vital Problem of the Rural High School, 309.
- Book, Reviews, 29, 67, 104, 140, 176, 217, 251, 285, 319, 357.
- Boynton, G. E., The Use of Current Literature, 95.
- Bourne, Henry E., Definition of the Field of History, 194.
- Bowers, Claude G., The Irish Orators, reviewed, 357.
- Boyd, John, Sir George Etienne Cartier, reviewed, 358.
- British History, A Short, by W. S. Robertson, reviewed, 30.
- Brown, Everett S., Freshman History at the University of California, 268.
- Bullard, Arthur, The Diplomacy of the Great War, reviewed, 319.
- Bureau of Municipal Research, 354.
- Burgess, John W., The Reconciliation of Government with Liberty, reviewed, 32.
- Burr, George L., Definition of the Field of History, 201.
- Cahall, Raymond D., Sovereign Council of New France, reviewed, 217.
- California History Teachers' Association, 64.
- California, University of, Freshman History at, 268.
- Canadian Commonwealth, by A. C. Laut, reviewed, 176.
- Canadian Port in War Time, A, 189.
- Cannon, Henry L., review of Innes' History of England, 30; review of Petit-Dutaillis' Studies and Notes, 142; review of Harmer's Select English Historical Documents, 176; review of White and Notestein's Source Problems in English History, 251; review of B. A. Lees' Alfred the Great, 287; review of Dalton's Life of Thomas Pitt, 357.
- Carnegie Institution, Department of Historical Research, 139.
- Cartier, Sir George Etienne, by J. Boyd, reviewed, 358.
- Catholic Education, History an Essential of, by Brother Edward, 344.
- Centennials, Position of Historian in Statehood, 229.
- Changing Conceptions in History, by D. C. Munro, 116.
- Chase, L. A., History Course as an Expression of the Interests of To-day, 21; How the Furs Came down from the North Country, 44.
- Chase, Wayland J., The Study of the History Lesson, 153; editor of department of Book Reviews, 29, 67, 104, 140, 176, 217, 251, 285, 319, 357.
- Cheyney, Edward P., review of Dodd's The Pilgrimage of Grace and Exeter Conspiracy, 285.
- Chicago, University of, conference on history teaching, 212.
- China, Study of the history of, in American colleges, 183.
- Chronology in History Teaching, 291.
- Civic View of Teaching History, The, by G. W. Eddy, 120.
- Civics, Standards for Community, 57; bibliography of, 61; syllabus of, 60; report of committee of American Political Science Association upon, 68; dangers in, 120; teaching of, by type lessons, 212; courses in, for rural high schools, 309; in New Bedford (Conn.) high school, 318; Teaching of, conferences upon, 354.
- Clapp, Edwin J., Economic Aspects of the War, reviewed, 142.
- Class in Current Events, A, by A. B. Kirk, 97.
- Clement, Ernest W., Short History of Japan, reviewed, 217.
- Colby, Elbridge, The Historical Novel, 264.
- Collateral Reading, testing, 53; in colleges, 115; a system of, 233; in high schools of North Central States, 350.
- College Entrance Examinations, percentages in 1915, 29; Questions for 1916, 312.
- Colleges, History in, Freshman History, 111; history of the Far East, 183; freshman course at University of California, 268; an experiment in the history of American life, 301.
- Colorado History Teachers, 353.

- Columbus, Christopher, by M. Stapley, reviewed, 253.
- Committee of Seven, relation of report to definition of history, 207.
- Community Civics, Standards for, 57; see Civics.
- Comparative Free Government, by J. Macy and J. W. Gannaway, reviewed, 140.
- Comprehensive Examinations in history, for 1916, 313, 315.
- Consultation Work in History, in New York State, 138, 214.
- Correlation of History, and other subjects, 138, 342, 351.
- Coulomb, Charles A., Recent Historical Publications, 34, 70, 106, 143, 178, 219, 253, 287, 323, 355.
- Cox, I. J., The European Background of American History, 163.
- Crockett, Davy, by W. C. Sprague, reviewed, 253.
- Crusades, historical reviews of, 118.
- Cuba Old and New, by A. G. Robinson, reviewed, 218.
- Culture-Epoch Theory, criticized, 137.
- Current Events, Practical value of, 24; the teaching of, 74-98.
- Current Literature, The Use of, 95.
- Dalton, Sir C. N., The Life of Thomas Pitt, reviewed, 357.
- Dawson, Edgar, review of Burgess' Reconciliation of Government with Liberty, 32; Elementary College Course in Comparative Government, 66; review of Ryan's Municipal Freedom, 67; review of Williams' New York's Part in History, 105; review of Macy and Gannaway's Comparative Free Government, 140.
- Definiteness in History Teaching, 340.
- Definition of the Field of History, by H. D. Foster, 191; by H. E. Bourne, 194; by Margaret McGill, 196; by E. M. Violette, 197; by James Sullivan, 199; by G. L. Burr, 201; by Crystal Harford, 202; by E. J. Berringer, 203; by J. R. Sutton, 207; history teachers' associations upon, 191.
- Democracy, in the nineteenth century, 330.
- Development of the Modern High School Library, by M. E. Hall, 46.
- Diplomacy, American, bibliography of, 39-43.
- Diplomacy of the Great War, The, by A. Bullard, reviewed, 319.
- Diplomatic History, American, 39.
- Disfranchisement of negro, in South, 273.
- Dodd, William E., Expansion and Conflict, reviewed, 218.
- Dodds, Madeline H., and Dodds, Ruth, The Pilgrimage of Grace and the Executive Conspiracy, reviewed, 285.
- Dramatization in History Classes, 336, 338.
- Dudley, E. Lawrence, Benjamin Franklin, reviewed, 253.
- Dyckman House, New York City, 353.
- Eaton, Rachel C., John Ross and the Cherokee Indians, reviewed, 29.
- Economic Aspects of the War, by E. J. Clapp, reviewed, 142.
- Economic Interpretation of History, 293.
- Economics, Five Hundred Practical Questions in, 249; in the High School, 297; Value of, in high school, 343.
- Eddy, George W., The Civic View of Florida History Teachers' Association, Teaching History, 120.
- Edmonds, Franklin S., Ulysses S. Grant, reviewed, 140.
- Education, History of, by P. J. McCormick, reviewed, 32.
- Educational Renaissance in the South, 270.
- Edward, Brother D., History an Essential in Catholic Education, 344.
- Efficiency of History Teaching, 238, 242, 243.
- Elementary Schools, history in, reorganized, 175; suggestions for, 176.
- Ellery, Eloise, Brissot de Warville, reviewed, 69.
- Elliott, Edward, American Government and Majority Rule, reviewed, 251.
- England and Germany in the War, by R. J. Thompson, reviewed, 105.
- England and the British Empire, History of, by A. D. Innes, reviewed, 30.
- England, Social and Industrial History of, by F. W. Tickner, reviewed, 217.
- England, The Making of Modern, by G. Slater, reviewed, 321.
- [English] Historical Association, The, 137, 353.
- English Historical Documents of the Ninth and Tenth Centuries, by F. E. Harmer, reviewed, 176.
- Entrance Examinations, College, 29, 312.
- Europe, Short History of, by C. S. Terry, Vol. III, reviewed, 253.
- European Background of American History, by I. J. Cox, 163.
- European History in Secondary Schools, 20; two year course, 203.
- Evans, Howell T., Wales and the Wars of the Roses, reviewed, 176.
- Evans, Jessie C., review of Aronovici's The Social Survey, 357.
- Evidence in the Case, The, by J. M. Beck, reviewed, 217.
- Exeter Conspiracy, The, 1538, by M. H. Dodds and R. Dodds, reviewed, 285.
- Exhibition of School Work in History, 340.
- Expansion and Conflict, by W. E. Dodd, reviewed, 218.
- Expansion, Territorial, of United States, 128.
- Experimental Course in Industrial History, by E. L. Osgood, 98.
- Examinations, College Entrance, percentages in 1915, 29; College Entrance, 1916, 312; comprehensive, 313, 315.
- Far East, Study of the history of, in American colleges, 183.
- Fiction, Historical, values of, 264, 266.
- Fife, Robert H., The German Empire between Two Wars, reviewed, 321.
- First Newspaper Published in Alaska, The, 233.
- Fish, Carl Russell, American Diplomatic History in High School, 39; review of A. H. Abel, The American Indian as Slaveholder, 141; review of Ford's The Writings of John Quincy Adams, Vol. VI, 320.
- Five Hundred Practical Questions in Economics, 249.
- Fling, Fred Morrow, review of Ellery's Brissot de Warville, 69; review of Belloc's High Lights of the French Revolution, 104.
- Fling, Fred M., and Fling, Helene D., Source Problems on the French Revolution, reviewed, 252.
- Foreign Affairs, see Diplomacy.
- Forms of the History Recitation, by F. M. Morehouse, 332.
- Foster, Herbert D., Definition of the Field of History, 191.
- Founding of a Nation, The, by F. M. Gregg, reviewed, 141.
- France in Danger, by P. Vergnet, reviewed, 31.
- Frank, Tenny, Roman Imperialism, reviewed, 33.
- Franklin, Benjamin, by E. L. Dudley, reviewed, 253.
- Freeman, Archibald, review of Larson's Short History of England, 69.
- French Revolution, Source Problems on, by F. M. Fling and H. D. Fling, reviewed, 252.
- Freshman History, Present Tendencies in Teaching, 111; High School Training of, 268; at the University of California, 268.
- Frontier in American History, 125.
- Fur-trade, in North America, 44.
- Geiser, Karl F., review of Tucker's Limitations on Treaty-making Power, 68.
- Genealogical Chart of English and Scottish Kings, 215.
- Geographical vs. Sequential History, 291.
- Geography and History, 295.
- German Empire between Two Wars, The, by R. H. Fife, reviewed, 321.
- Germany, Short History of, by E. F. Henderson, reviewed, 320.
- Giles, William Branch, by D. R. Anderson, reviewed, 320.
- Gilman, Bradley, Robert E. Lee, reviewed, 253.
- Government; Its Origin, Growth and Form in the United States, by R. Lansing and G. M. Jones, reviewed, 68.
- Government, see Civics.
- Grant, Ulysses S., by F. S. Edmonds, reviewed, 140.
- Greeks, Home Life of the Ancient, by H. Blumner, reviewed, 32.
- Gregg, Frank M., The Founding of a Nation, reviewed, 141.
- Griffith, Elmer C., Public Discussion as a Civic Duty, 15.
- Halifax, N. B., in war time, 189.
- Hall, Mary E., The Development of the Modern High School Library, 46.
- Harding, Samuel B., The Nature and Method of History, 3.
- Harford, Crystal, Definition of the Field of History, 202.
- Harmer, F. E., Select English Historical Documents, reviewed, 176.
- Harrer, G. A., Studies in the History of the Roman Province of Syria, reviewed, 33.
- Haskins, Charles H., The Normans in European History, reviewed, 105.
- Henderson, Ernest F., A Short History of Germany, reviewed, 320.
- Henry, H. M., The Police Control of the Slave in South Carolina, reviewed, 30; review of Russel's America to Japan, 105; review of Anderson's William Branch Giles, 320.

- Herrick, Cheesman A., Economics in Jackson, Andrew, Life of, by J. S. Bassett, reviewed, 178.
- Hill, David J., *The People's Government*, reviewed, 141.
- Hill, Howard C., review of Fling's *Source Problems on the French Revolution*, 252.
- High Lights of French Revolution, by H. Belloc, reviewed, 104.
- High School History Recitation, The, by R. M. Tryon, 236.
- High School, Rural, Vital Problem of, 308.
- High School Training of College Freshmen, 268.
- High Schools, see Secondary Schools.
- Historians, and the World War, 327.
- Historic Heroes of Chivalry, by R. S. Holland, reviewed, 68.
- Historical Novel, The, uses of, 264, 266.
- Historical Publications, Recent, 34, 70, 106, 143, 178, 219, 253, 287, 323, 355.
- History and Archaeology, relations between, 147.
- History Course as an Expression of the Interests of To-day, by L. A. Chase, 21.
- History, definition of, 116.
- History Lesson, Study of, 153.
- "History," magazine entitled, 174; under new management, 232.
- History, nature of, 3-7.
- History of American Life, The, by K. S. Latourette, 301.
- History Teacher, successful qualities in, 237; observation of, 242; score card for, 243.
- History Teachers' Associations, Lists of, 215, 250, 269, 322, 354. See also under names of states and cities.
- Hodder, Frank H., *The Purchase of Louisiana*, 185.
- Hogarth, D. G., *The Ancient East*, reviewed, 251.
- Holland, Rupert S., *Historic Heroes of Chivalry*, reviewed, 68; *William Penn*, reviewed, 253.
- Hollywood (Cal.) Junior College Studies in History, 250.
- Home Life of the Ancient Greeks, by H. Blumner, reviewed, 32.
- Horton, D. W., *Standards for Community Civics*, 57.
- How I Handle Current Events, by J. M. Gathany, 24.
- How the Furs Came Down from the North Country, by L. A. Chase, 44.
- How to Study and What to Study, by R. L. Sandwich, reviewed, 141.
- Howe, Frederic C., *Socialized Germany*, reviewed, 177.
- I Accuse, reviewed, 67.
- Immigrants, education of, see Americanization.
- "Independent, The," used in schools, 94.
- Indiana History Teachers, 354.
- Industrial History, Experimental Course in, 98; syllabus of, 99, 103; of the New South, 224-229; in the Standard High School Course, 302.
- Innes, Arthur D., *A History of England and the British Empire*, reviewed, 30.
- Institute of Public Service, 64.
- Internal Improvements, 132.
- Interpretation of history, philosophic, 292; economic, 293; race, 293.
- Iowa History Teachers, 354.
- Irish Orators, The, by C. G. Bowers, reviewed, 357.
- Jackson, Andrew, Life of, by J. S. Bassett, reviewed, 178.
- Japan, Study of history of, in American colleges, 183; *Short History of*, by E. W. Clement, reviewed, 217.
- Japanese Expansion and American Policies, by J. F. Abbott, reviewed, 252.
- Joffre, General, Life of, by A. Kahn, reviewed, 286.
- Johnston, Henry P., *Nathan Hale*, reviewed, 29.
- Johnson, Winifred, *Genealogical Chart of Kings of England and Scotland*, reviewed, 215.
- Jones, Chester Lloyd, review of Barker's *Political Thought in England*, 104; review of Hill's *The People's Government*, 141; review of Elliott's *American Government*, 251.
- Journalism as an Aid to History Teaching, by E. Slosson, 92.
- Julia Richman High School, New York City, industrial history in, 98.
- Kahn, Alexander, Life of General Joffre, reviewed, 286.
- Kennedy, A. H., review of Harmer's *Select English Historical Documents*, 176.
- Keyes, C. W., *The Rise of the Equites in the Third Century of the Roman Empire*, reviewed, 33.
- Kirk, Annie B., *A Class in Current Events*, 97.
- Kirksville (Mo.) Normal School History Bulletin, 211.
- Knowlton, D. C., *Solution of the European History Problem*, 20; *School Exhibit in History*, 340.
- Koos, Leonard V., *History in North Central High Schools*, 347.
- Laboratory, Historical, 115.
- Laboratory Method in History, 334.
- Land System in America, Development of, 130.
- Latin-America, bibliography of, 250.
- Latin Clubs, *Handbook for*, reviewed, 319.
- Lansing, Robert, and Jones, G. M., *Government: Its Origin, Growth and Form in the United States*, reviewed, 68.
- Larson, Lawrence M., *A Short History of England and the British Empire*, reviewed, 69.
- Latourette, K. S., *The History of the Far East, A Neglected Field*, 183; *The History of American Life, a New Type of College Course*, 301.
- Laut, Agnes C., *The Canadian Commonwealth*, reviewed, 176.
- Lecture system in colleges, 114.
- Lee, Robert E., by B. Gilman, reviewed, 253.
- Lees, Beatrice A., *Alfred the Great*, reviewed, 287.
- Lesson, History, study of, 153.
- Libraries, high school, 46; normal school, 50; bibliography of school, 52; selection of, 53; used to best advantage, 55.
- Library Training in Normal Schools, 50.
- Library Reference Work, a system of, 233.
- Limitation of field of history, 27.
- Limitations on the Treaty-Making Power, by H. S. Tucker, reviewed, 68.
- Lingelbach, William E., review of Rose's *Nationality in Modern History*, 287.
- Lingley, Charles R., *Recent American History through the Actors' Eyes*, 80.
- Liquor Dealers' Association, literature of, 318.
- "Literary Digest, The," used in schools, 94.
- Local History, in Ohio, 137; as influenced by statehood centennials, 230; 342.
- Lord Roberts, by M. Mempe, reviewed, 30.
- Louisiana, Purchase of, 185.
- Mace, William H., and Tanner, Edwin P., *The Story of Old Europe and Young America*, reviewed, 322.
- Macy, Jesse, and Gannaway, John W., *Comparative Free Government*, reviewed, 140.
- Magazines, use of, in schools, 23.
- Maitland, F. W., and Montague, F. C., *A Sketch of Legal History*, reviewed, 68.
- Making of a Book, by Elizabeth B. White, 338.
- Map of Europe, *The Story of the*, by L. P. Benezet, reviewed, 286.
- Maps, Outline, use of, 279, 280; Sketch, value of, in history work, 283; historical, use of, 296.
- McCormick, Patrick J., *History of Education*, reviewed, 32.
- McElroy, Robert McNutt, *Classroom Treatment of Recent Events in Europe and America*, 85.
- McGill, Margaret, *Definition of the Field of History*, 196.
- McLaughlin, Andrew C., *Teaching War and Peace in American History*, 250.
- Medieval Civilization, by R. L. Ashley, reviewed, 252.
- Medieval Play, A, 338.
- Mempe, Mortimer, Lord Roberts, reviewed, 30.
- Method, Historical, 3-7; 117.
- Methods of teaching history. See Colleges, Secondary Schools, etc.
- Methods of Teaching History, in North Central States, 349.
- Metropolitan Museum, use of, by school pupils, 353.
- Mexico, Carranza platform, 27.
- Middle States Association of History Teachers, 28, 212, 213, 319.
- Mierow, C. C., *Eugippius and the Closing Years of the Province of Noricum Ripense*, reviewed, 33.
- Minnesota, State Day, 353; *History Bulletin*, 353.
- Mississippi Valley Historical Association, annual meeting, 213; history conference, 213; report of committee on Relation of Normal Schools to High School History Teaching, 244.
- Monro, Kate M., *The Value of Historical Fiction*, 266.
- Monroe Doctrine, development of, 211.
- Moore, David R., review of Rose's *The Origins of the War*, 31.
- Moore, Norman, *The Physician in English History*, reviewed, 69.
- Morgan, James, *In the Footsteps of Napoleon*, reviewed, 251.
- Municipal Freedom, by O. Ryan, reviewed, 67.
- Munro, Dana C., review of Maitland and Montague's *Sketch of Legal History*, 68; review of Haskins' *Normans in European History*, 105; review of Poole's *Papal Chancery*, 177.
- Murphy, Archibald D., *Papers of*, reviewed, 140.

- Museums, Historical, 353.
 Mutual Opinions of North and South, 1851-1854, 122.
 Muzzey, David S., Readings in American History, reviewed, 177.
- Napoleon, In the Footsteps of, by J. Morgan, reviewed, 251; The Story Life of, by W. Whipple, reviewed, 286.
 Nathan Hale, by H. P. Johnston, reviewed, 29.
 Nationality in Modern History, by J. H. Rose, reviewed, 287; in the nineteenth century, 330.
 Nature and Method of History, by S. B. Harding, 3.
 Negro History, Journal of, 103.
 Negro, The, Since 1865, 274; suffrage of, 273; history of negro musicians, 318.
 Neutral Rights, documents on, 27.
 Newark, N. J., European History in High Schools in, 20; School Exhibit, 340.
 New Bedford (Conn.) civics in high school, 318.
 New England History Teachers' Association, 214, 249, 319, 353.
 New France, Sovereign Council of, by R. D. Cahall, reviewed, 217.
 New Nation, The, by F. L. Paxson, reviewed, 218.
 New South, Teaching the History of, in Secondary Schools, 223, 270.
 New York, History Teachers, 64; History Teaching in, 137.
 New York City Conference of History Teachers, 104.
 New York's Part in History, by S. Williams, reviewed, 105.
 Nida, Stella H., Panama and Its Bridge of Water, reviewed, 176.
 Normal Schools, library training in, 50; Relation to High School Teaching, report upon, 244.
 Normans in European History, The, by C. H. Haskins, reviewed, 105.
 North and South, 1851-54, Mutual Opinions, 122.
 North Central States, History in High Schools of, 347.
 Northwest Territory, 127.
 Northwestern Association of History Teachers, 27, 212, 318.
 Notebook, The History, in Secondary Schools, 277.
 Notestein, W., and White, A. B., Source Problems in English History, reviewed, 251.
 Novel, The Historical, value of, 264.
 Nye, B. H., A Canadian Port in War Time, 189.
- Object Lessons in History, 334.
 Observation Work in history, 241.
 O'Hara, C. C., The First Newspaper Published in Alaska, 233.
 Ohio History Teachers, 103, 318; Journal of, 214.
 Ohio Valley Historical Association, 283.
 Old Europe and Young America, The Story of, by W. H. Mace and E. P. Tanner, reviewed, 222.
 Oldfather, W. A., and Canter, H. V., The Defeat of Varus and the German Frontier Policy of Augustus, reviewed, 33.
 Oliver, John W., Position of the Historian in Statehood Centennials, 229.
 Olmstead, A. T., review of Rogers' History of Babylonia and Assyria, 30.
 Oral Instruction in History, 332.
- Origins of the War, The, by J. H. Rose, reviewed, 31.
 Osgood, Ellen L., Experimental Course in Industrial History, 98.
 Outlines, Use of, in history classes, 279.
 "Outlook, The," used in schools, 94.
- Pageants, Historical, 103; for Washington's Birthday, 176; at Anoka, Minn., 250, 283; at Mankato, Minn., 284.
 Panama and Its Bridge of Water, by S. H. Nida, reviewed, 176.
- Papal Chancery, Lectures on, by R. L. Poole, reviewed, 177.
- Patriotic Education, 212. See Civics, and Americanization.
- Patriotism, by Lyman Abbott, 139.
- Paxson, Frederic L., The Study of Recent American History, 75; The New Nation, reviewed, 218.
- Paxson, Susan A. Handbook for Latin Clubs, reviewed, 319.
- Peace, War and, in American History, 259.
- Penn, William, by R. S. Holland, reviewed, 253.
- Pennsylvania History Teachers, 64.
- Pennsylvania, University of, conference on history teaching, 212.
- People's Government, The, by D. J. Hill, reviewed, 141.
- Periodical Literature, edited by G. B. Richards, 26, 63, 102, 136, 174, 210, 248, 285, 317, 356.
- Periodicals, Use of, in Schools, 64, 85, 88-91, 92, 95, 97.
- Perkins, Clarence, review of Vergnet's France in Danger, 31; review of Beveridge's What Is Back of the War, 31; review of "I Accuse," 68; review of Thompson's England and Germany in the War, 105; review of Clapp's Economic Aspects of the War, 142; review of Howe's Socialized Germany, 177; review of Beck's The Evidence in the Case, 217; review of The Socialists and War, 218; review of Abbott's Japanese Expansion and American Policies, 252; review of Sweetser's Roadside Glimpses of the Great War, 285; review of Van der Essen's Short History of Belgium, 286; review of Bullard's Diplomacy of the Great War, 319; of R. H. Fife, The German Empire, 321.
- Persinger, Clark E., American Revolutionary History in High School, 7.
- Petit-Dutaillis, Charles, Studies and Notes Supplementary to Stubbs' History, reviewed, 142.
- Philadelphia, History Club of Higher Schools, 104, 211.
- Philippines, Teaching of History in, 138.
- Physician in English History, The, by N. Moore, reviewed, 69.
- Pictures, Study of, referred to, 211, 283.
- Pilgrimage of Grace, 1536-1537, by M. H. Dodds and R. Dodds, reviewed, 285.
- Pitt, Thomas, Life of, by Sir C. N. Dalton, reviewed, 357.
- Pitts, Lemuel, Jr., Are History Libraries Used to Best Advantage? 55.
- Pittsburgh, Pa., Conference of History Teachers, 14.
- Plain Story of American History, The, by J. S. Bassett, reviewed, 358.
- Police Control of the Slave in South Carolina, by H. M. Henry, reviewed, 30.
- Political Science, American Association, 66; study of in colleges, 66; list of elementary college texts, 67. See also Civics.
- Political Thought in England, by E. Barker, reviewed, 104.
- Poole, Reginald L., Lectures on the History of the Papal Chancery, reviewed, 177.
- Practice Teaching in History, 247.
- Present Tendencies in Teaching Freshman History, by A. B. Show, 111.
- Prizes, of American Historical Association, 175.
- Problem Method, suggested, 154; Problem Method of Presentation, by W. P. Webb, 155; Source Problems in English History, reviewed, 251; Source Problems on French Revolution, reviewed, 252; in History Classes, 335, 342.
- Prohibition, literature against, 318.
- Public Discussion as a Civic Duty, by E. C. Griffith, 15.
- Public Service, Institute of, 64.
- Publications, Recent Historical, 34, 70, 106, 143, 178, 219, 253, 287, 323, 355.
- Questioning in History Classes, 240.
- Questionnaire, on definition of field of history, 27, 192.
- Quizz system, in colleges, 114.
- Ranke, Ernst, views on history, 292.
- Reading, Collateral, testing, 53.
- Reading-Study Recitation, 333.
- Recent History in High Schools, 21, 24, 75, 80, 85.
- Recent Historical Publications, listed by C. A. Coulomb, 34, 70, 106, 143, 178, 219, 253, 287, 323, 355.
- Recitation, in history classes, 115, 153, 155, 236, 239, 332.
- Reconciliation of Government with Liberty, The, by J. W. Burgess, reviewed, 32.
- Reconstruction in Georgia, by C. M. Thompson, reviewed, 68; of Southern States, see South.
- Red Cross Society, bibliography of, 215.
- Reviews in History Classes, 335.
- Reviews of Books, 29, 67, 104, 140, 176, 217, 251, 285, 319, 357.
- Revolution, American, 7-14.
- Richards, Gertrude Bramlette, Periodical Literature, 26, 63, 102, 136, 174, 210, 248, 285, 317, 356.
- Riverside History of the United States, The, Vols. III and IV, reviewed, 218.
- Rizal, Jose, 103.
- Roadside Glimpses of the Great War, by A. Sweetser, reviewed, 285.
- Robinson, Albert G., Cuba Old and New, reviewed, 218.
- Robinson, W. S., A Short British History, Period I, reviewed, 30.
- Rogers, R. W., History of Babylonia and Assyria, reviewed, 30.
- Roman Imperialism, by T. Frank, reviewed, 33.
- Roman History, recent studies in, reviewed, 33; source references on, 319.
- Root, W. T., review of Gregg's The Founding of a Nation, 141; review of Cahill's Sovereign Council of New France, 217.
- Rose, J. Holland, The Origins of the War, reviewed, 31; Nationality in Modern History, reviewed, 287.
- Ross, John, and the Cherokee Indians, by R. E. Eaton, reviewed, 29.
- Rural High School, A Vital Problem of, 309.

- Russel, Lindsay, *America to Japan*, reviewed, 105.
- Ryan, Oswald, *Municipal Freedom*, reviewed, 67.
- Sandwick, Richard L., *How to Study and What to Study*, reviewed, 141.
- Sanford, Albert H., *Mutual Opinions of North and South*, 1851-54, 122; review of *True Stories of Great Americans*, 253; *The Story of Agriculture in the United States*, reviewed, 321; review of Mace and Tanner's *The Story of Old Europe and Young America*, 322; of Bassett's *Plain Story of American History*, 358.
- Schedule of History Classes, in North Central States, 348.
- Scholz, Robert F., review of Frank's *Roman Imperialism*, 34.
- Scientific History, 328.
- Secondary Schools, American History in, 7; Solution of the European History Problem, 20; American Diplomatic history in, 39; development of school libraries, 46; collateral reading in, 53; use of libraries, 55; study of recent American history, 75; use of periodicals, 85, 88-91, 92, 95, 97; the civic view of teaching history, 120; How to teach the History of the Western United States, 125; the history lesson, 153, the problem method, 155; Teaching the European Background of American History, 163; American History, 185; definition of the field, 191-210; American history in, the new South, 223, 270; the high school history recitation, 236; relation of normal schools to, 244; teaching war and peace, 259; use of the history notebook, 277; industrial history, 302; vital problem of rural schools, 309; list of accredited, 319; forms of the recitation, 332; exhibit of school work in history, 340; history in North Central high schools, 347.
- Sellery, George C., review of Boyd's Sir George E. Cartier, 358.
- Sequential History vs. Geographical, 291.
- Seyboldt, Robert F., review of McCormick's *History of Education*, 32.
- Shilling, D. C., review of Edmond's U. S. Grant, 140.
- Short History of England and the British Empire, by L. M. Larson, reviewed, 69.
- Shortridge, Wilson P., review of Muzzey's *Readings in American History*, 177; review of Ashley's *Medieval Civilization*, 252; review of Terry's *Short History of Europe*, vol. III, 253.
- Show, Arley B., *Present Tendencies in Teaching Freshman History*, 111.
- Sioussat, St. George L., *Teaching the History of the New South*, 223, 270.
- Sketch of Legal History, A, by F. W. Maitland and F. C. Montague, reviewed, 68.
- Slater, Gilbert, *The Making of Modern England*, reviewed, 321.
- Slavery in United States, view of, 124; and the West, 129.
- Slosson, Edwin E., *Journalism as an Aid to History Teaching*, 92.
- Smith, C. A., review of Evans' *Wales and the Wars of the Roses*, 176; review of Tickner's *Social and Industrial History of England*, 217.
- Social Survey, The, by C. Aronovici, reviewed, 357.
- Social Work, education for, 211.
- Socialists and War, by W. E. Walling, reviewed, 217.
- Socialized Germany, by F. C. Howe, reviewed, 177.
- Solution of the European History Problem, by D. C. Knowlton, 20.
- Sources, use of, in college, 115; in secondary schools, 158; use of, 158; extracts and references on Roman history, 319.
- South, The New, teaching the history of, in secondary schools, 223, 270; The Educational Renaissance in, 270; political and constitutional development, 273.
- Sprague, William C., *Davy Crockett*, reviewed, 253.
- Standards for Community Civics, by D. W. Horton, 57; for judging history teaching, 238, 243.
- Stapley, Mildred, *Christopher Columbus*, reviewed, 253.
- "State Days," Minnesota, 353.
- Statehood Centennials, Position of the Historian in, 229.
- States, Admission of, 129.
- Stubbs' Constitutional History, Studies and Notes Supplementary to, by C. Petit-Dutaillis, reviewed, 142.
- Student Opinion of History Teaching, 282.
- Study of the History Lesson, The, by W. J. Chase, 153.
- Suffrage in United States, 133; Negro, in the New South, 273.
- Sullivan, James, Definition of the Field of History, 199.
- Summer Schools, 1916, History in, 169; 216.
- Sutton, J. R., Definition of the Field of History, 207.
- Sweetser, Arthur, *Roadside Glimpses of the Great War*, reviewed, 285.
- Syllabi, of community civics, 60; of American history, 64; of industrial history, 99, 103; in college work, 115.
- Syria, Roman Province of, 33.
- Tanner, Edwin P. and Mace, William H., *The Story of Old Europe and Young America*, reviewed, 322.
- Taylor, Raymond G., "Outlines of American Industrial History," reviewed, 103; *Industrial History in the Standard High School Course*, 302.
- "Teaching," magazine, 212.
- Teaching War and Peace in American History, 259.
- Teachers Associations, History, lists of, 215, 250, 269, 322, 354. See also under names of states and cities.
- Teachers of Civics, training of, 309.
- Tennessee Association of History Teachers, 212.
- Terry, Charles S., *Short History of Europe*, Vol. III, reviewed, 253.
- Testing Collateral Reading, by M. B. Garrett, 53.
- Texas History Teachers' Bulletin, 35, 138, 283.
- Textbooks, need for new order of 108; on State History, 231; used in North Central States, 349.
- Thallon, Ida C., *Some Relations between Archaeology and History*, 147.
- Thompson, C. Mildred, *Reconstruction in Georgia*, reviewed, 68.
- Thompson, Robert J., *England and Germany in the War*, reviewed, 105.
- Tickner, F. W., *Social and Industrial History of England*, reviewed, 217.
- Time Schedule of History Classes, in North Central States, 348.
- Travel in United States, 1851, down Ohio and Mississippi, 122.
- True Stories of Great American Series, reviewed, 253.
- Tryon, R. M., *The High School History Recitation*, 236.
- Tucker, Henry St. G., *Limitations on the Treaty-Making Power*, reviewed, 68.
- United States and Great Britain, Relations between, study of, 250.
- United States, 1851-1854, Mutual Opinions of North and South, 122.
- Upper Ohio Valley, Association of Colleges and Normal and Secondary Schools of, 319.
- Use of Current Literature, The, by G. E. Boynton, 95.
- Van der Essen, Leon, *A Short History of Belgium*, reviewed, 286.
- Van Nostrand, J. J. Jr., review of recent studies in Roman History, 33.
- Vases, Greek, 150.
- Vergnet, Paul, *France in Danger*, reviewed, 31.
- Violette, E. M., Definition of the Field of History, 107; report of committee on Relation of Normal Schools to High School History Teaching, 244.
- Vital Problem of the Rural High School, by B. W. Bond, Jr., 309.
- Wales and the Wars of the Roses, by H. T. Evans, reviewed, 176.
- Walling, William E., *The Socialists and War*, reviewed, 218.
- War and Peace in American History, The Teaching of, 259.
- War, The World, and The Historians, 327.
- War Time in a Canadian Port, 189.
- Warville, Brisset de, by E. Ellery, reviewed, 69.
- Washington's Birthday, celebration of, 176.
- West and Slavery, The, 129.
- West in American History, How to Teach the History of, by H. W. Caldwell, 125.
- West Indies, Trade with, 285.
- West Virginia History Teachers, 353.
- Wharton, Anne H., *Ancestral Homes of Noted Americans*, reviewed, 18.
- What Is Back of the War, by A. J. Beveridge, reviewed, 31.
- Whipple, Wayne, *The Story Life of Napoleon*, reviewed, 286.
- White, A. B., and Notestein, W., *Source Problems in English History*, reviewed, 251.
- White, Elizabeth B., *The Making of a Book*, 338.
- Willard, Clara E., *Mankato Historical Pageant*, 284.
- Williams, Sherman, *New York's Part in History*, reviewed, 105.
- Wisconsin History Teachers' Association, 319.
- Wisconsin Library Score Card, 243.
- World War and The Historians, The, by F. M. Anderson, 327.
- Wyoming, history teaching in, 175.

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